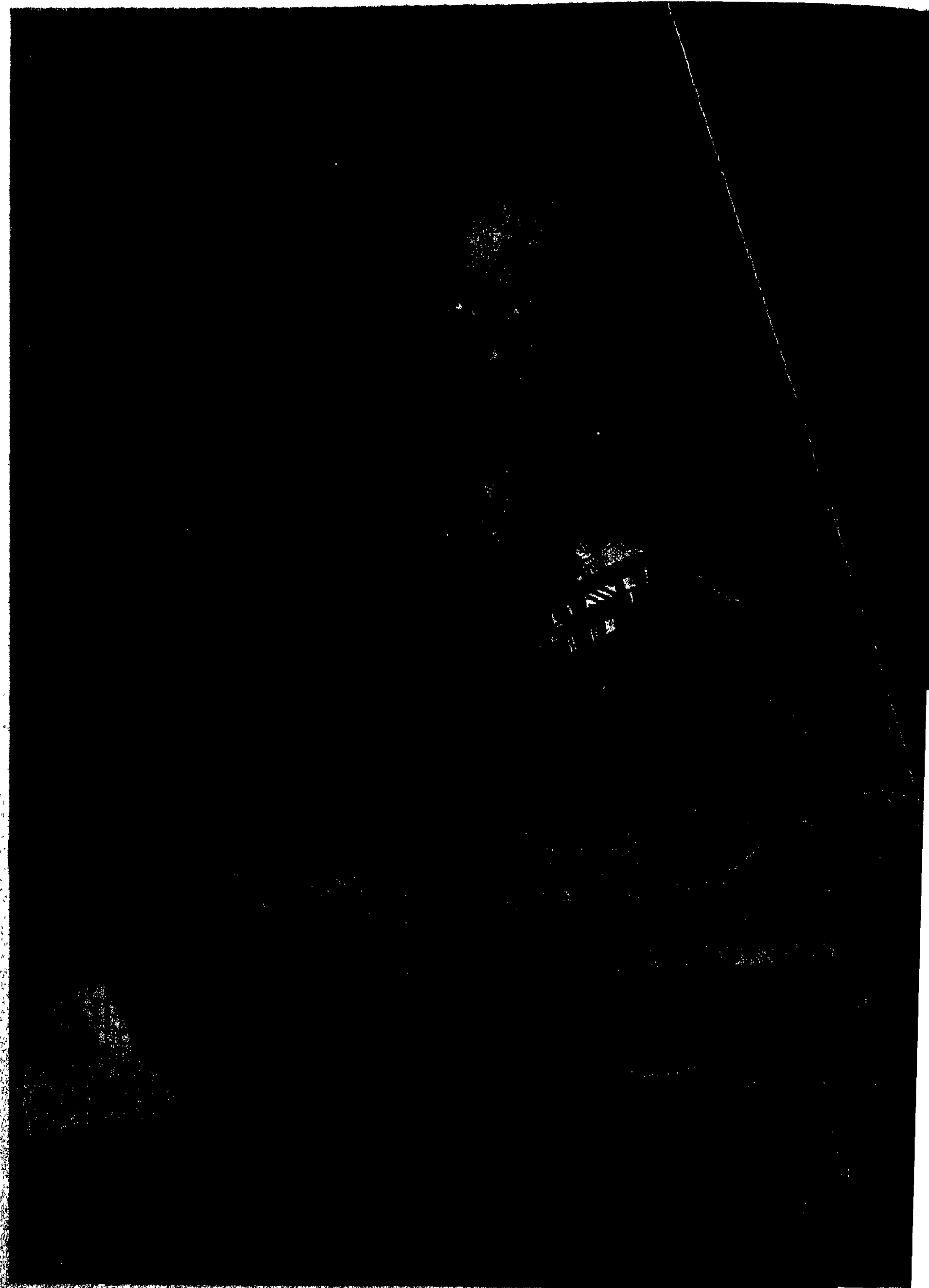


*THE SECOND
GREAT WAR*



AIR CHIEF MARSHAL SIR ARTHUR TRAVERS HARRIS, K.C.B., O.B.E., A.F.C.

THE SECOND GREAT WAR

A Standard History

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BRITISH PRISONERS OF WAR HOME FROM GERMANY

The first exchange of Allied and German prisoners took place in October 1943, when some 1,400 doctors, chaplains, orderlies, etc., about 170 sick merchant seamen, and 1,000 prisoners were exchanged for 5,000-6,000 Germans in similar categories. British hospital ships delivered German prisoners to the ports of Sweden and came back with Allied men: the photograph shows a tender arriving at the quayside at Leith on the 1st day of the exchange. The 'Drottningholm' and the 'Atlantis' were the ships which brought the prisoners home. German ships picked up German prisoners at an Allied port and took them back to Germany. British ships brought Germans from the Middle East to Barcelona and took back more than 1,000 men belonging to the British Empire from New Zealand, South Africa and other parts of the empire.

Photo, G.P.U.

THE HOME FRONT IN BRITAIN DURING 1943

Britain, the beleaguered fortress of 1940-41, had become by 1943 the centre from which invasion of the Continent, with all this implied of organization, training and provision of supplies, was being prepared. But even at this critical time thought and planning for the post-war world was not lacking, as this review shows. Consult also Historic Documents Nos. CCLXI and CCLXV. Home front activities in the second half of 1942 were recorded in Chapter 239

THE year 1943 in Britain may well be described as one of preparation for the Allied invasion of Western Europe. This it was intended to be in the Government's planning, so long-scale, so immensely vast in comprehension, so intensely complex in its construction. In the middle of January Mr. Oliver Lyttelton, Minister of Production, set the keynote of all the year's activities when he told the House of Commons that 1943 would be a peak year in our war production; and six months later, in a speech to the U.S.A. on American Independence Day, he declared that we in Britain, while fully cognizant of America's vast contributions to the common cause by way of Lend-Lease, had mobilized our men and women for war to the full, tightening our belts, working the longest hours possible, and pressing every ounce of our strength into the offensive battle. We now lived on less than half of our pre-war imports, he reminded his hearers across the Atlantic; men in the munitions industry were working an average of over 55 hours a week and women over 50 hours; and Britain as a result was now producing a greater volume of goods than ever before, and the figures for munitions production showed a steady rise. About 17 per cent of the munitions production of the United Nations was contributed by Great Britain alone, and 22 per cent by the Empire as a whole.

By the summer the mobilization of the country's man- and woman-power was practically complete. Out of a population of 46,750,000 (mid-1942), of whom 2 millions were children under 14, and an "effective" population between 14 and 65 of 33,180,000 (15,900,000 males and 17,280,000 females), 15,200,000 males and 7,100,000 females (including 2,000,000 married women) were in the

Services or engaged in full-time paid employment, while the remaining 10 million women were married or occupied in necessary household duties. (Some 650,000 of these were also engaged in part-time jobs, and another million were engaged as voluntary workers.) Over a million more men were engaged in making munitions than in the last war, but the mobilization of women was on an unprecedented and unrivalled scale.

given by Mr. Churchill, Mr. Bevin, Lord Woolton, and other ministers. The Prime Minister said that "the war effort would not have been achieved if the women had not marched forward in millions and undertaken all kinds of tasks and work for which any other generation than our own—unless you go back to the Stone Age—would have considered them unfitted"; while Mr. Bevin, who as Minister of Labour could

speak of women's work with unexampled authority, declared that the response, discipline, and output of British women had surpassed all expectations, and permitted of the most orderly and efficient mobilization of labour-power ever seen. Their effort had been vast, but "it would be a tough go during the winter and early spring," and the last great effort must now be made.

In spite of all that the U-boats had been able to achieve, the British people were still remarkably well fed—perhaps (indeed almost certainly) the best-fed people in Europe. The national larder continued to be well stocked with the produce of home agriculture and imports from abroad. Concerning the

latter, Mr. Mabane, Parliamentary Secretary of the Ministry of Food, said pertinently enough on May 13 in the House of Commons that never had so much been carried in so little, a reference to the careful scheming and scientific developments that had enormously reduced the ratio of volume to value in shipping space. Eighty per cent of space had been saved by importing eggs dried instead of in shell, 25 per cent by boning and telescoping carcass meat; and by dehydration 1 thousand tons of vegetables, occupying 140,000 cu. ft., could be reduced to 10 tons and 1,500 cu. ft. The methods of dehydration of fruits and vegetables were carried out in



NEW IDENTITY CARD ISSUED TO RESIDENTS IN GREAT BRITAIN

Under the National Registration Act, passed on September 1, 1939, identity cards were issued to each person resident in the United Kingdom on Sept. 30, 1939. These were recalled in 1943, when fresh ones of the pattern shown above were distributed with the new ration books (see illus., p. 2593).

In September a mass meeting of representative women workers in industry was called by the Government in the Albert Hall, London. Some 6,000 women attended, and addresses were

BRITAIN'S WAR PRODUCTION

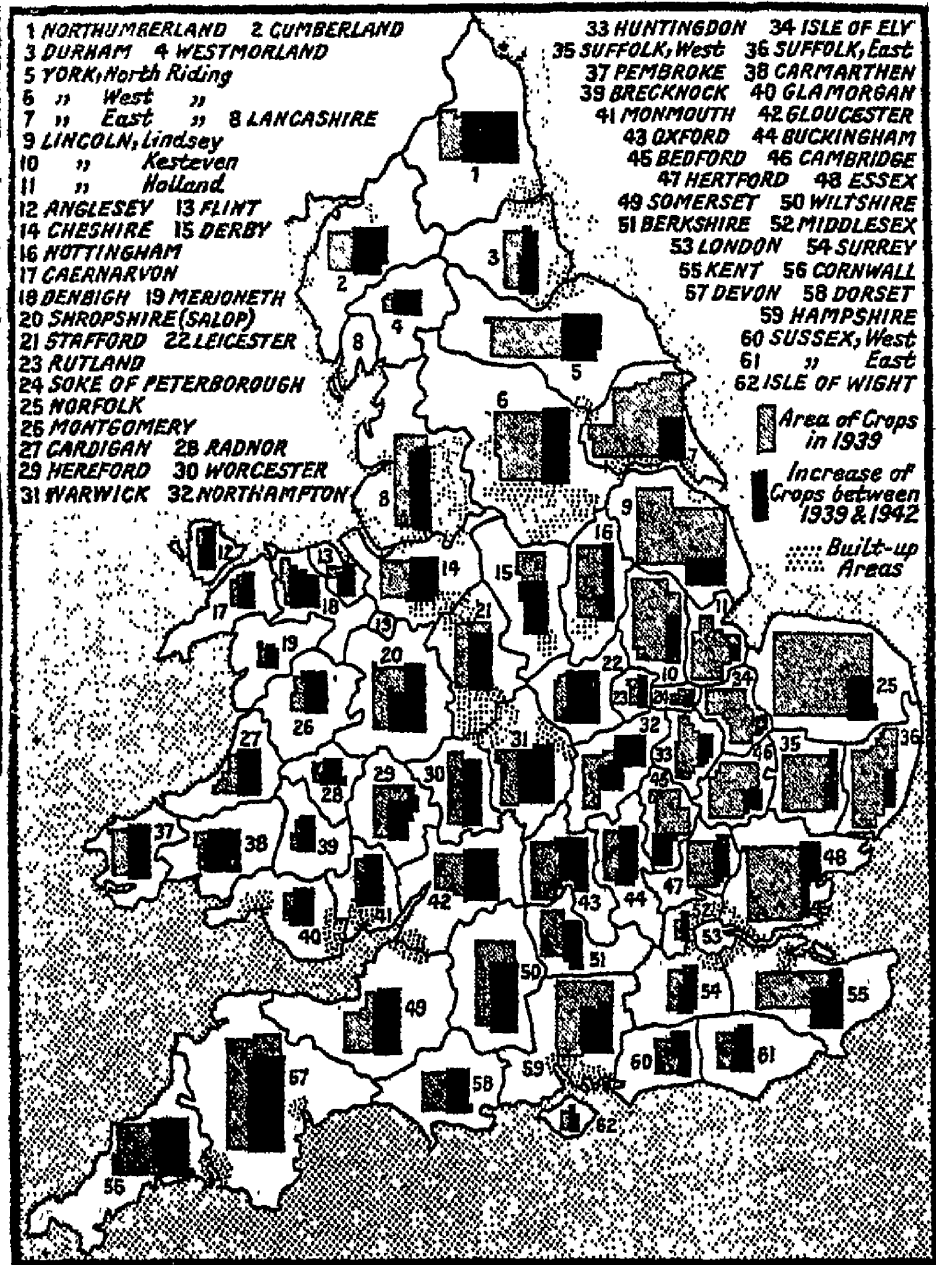
The following figures were given by Mr. Oliver Lyttelton (Minister of Production) in the House of Commons on March 8, 1944.

From the beginning of the war to the end of 1943:
 35,000 tanks, armoured cars and carriers.
 112,000 guns of calibres larger than 20 mm.
 190,000,000 rounds of gun ammunition.
 5,500,000 machine-guns, rifles, submachine-guns, and automatic pistols.
 7,500,000,000 rounds of small arms ammunition.
 1,000,000 wheeled vehicles of unarmoured type.
 70,000 aircraft of all kinds (80% combat types).

* From an official report issued in Washington, May 21, 1944, the number appears to have been 600,000.



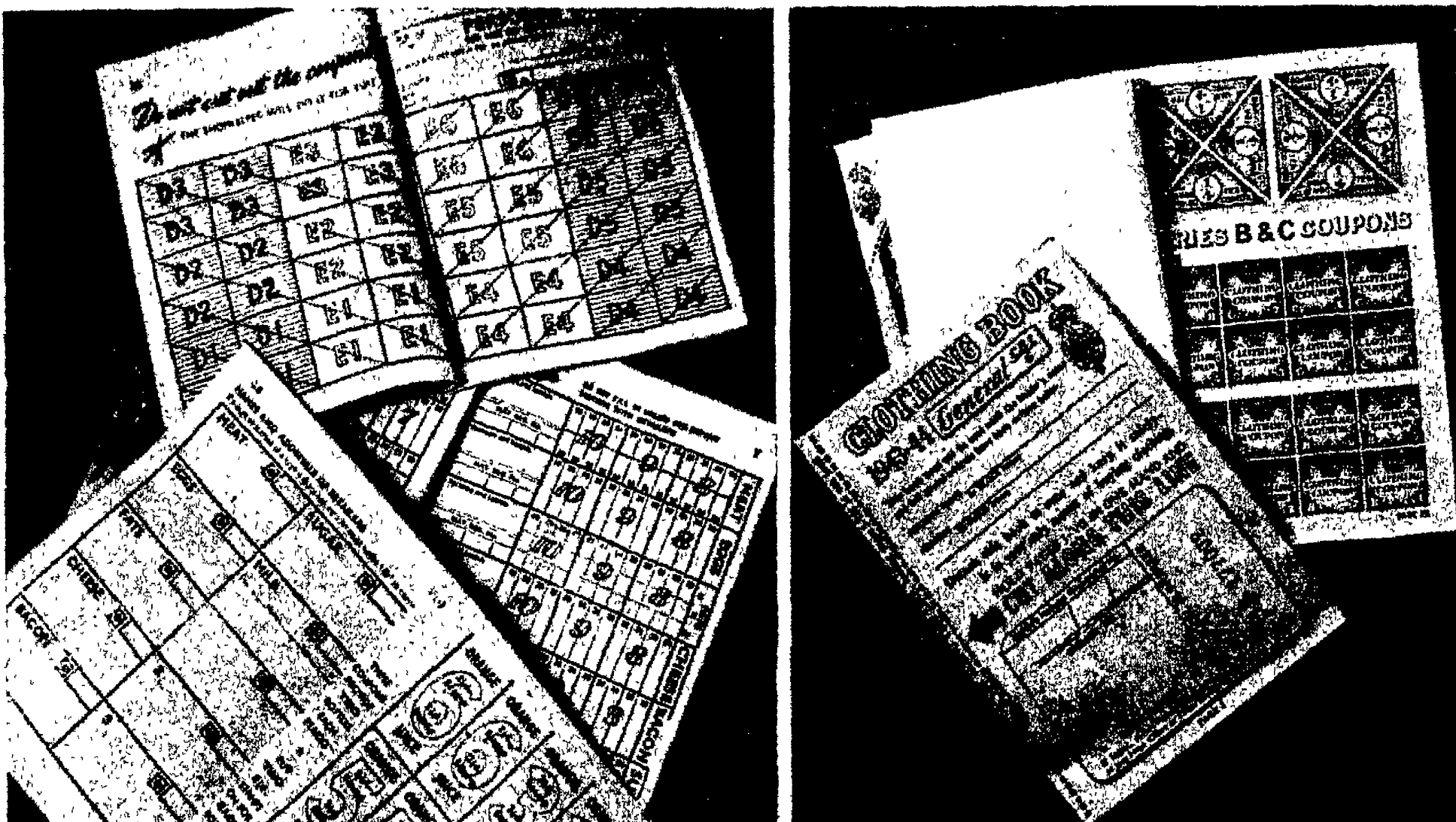
1. These cottages—two out of 3,000 promised for farm labourers by the Government—were 'opened' at Riding Lane, Hildenborough, Kent, on September 15, 1943, by the Rt. Hon. Ernest Brown, Minister of Health.
2. Volunteer land workers line up for their wages: many townsmen and women helped regular farm workers to get in the splendid harvest of 1943.



HOW BRITAIN DEVELOPED HER AGRICULTURE

In 1943, 70 per cent more food was produced in England and Wales than in 1939—a rise due in large measure to the greatly increased area under the plough. From the map (compiled from information supplied by the Ministry of Agriculture) can be seen the increase in production county by county in 1942; it was higher still in 1943. Great expansion in the use of machinery helped: this combine harvester (3), adjusted to cut only the ears of corn, left behind the straw to be ploughed back into the soil to form humus.





NEW RATION BOOKS FOR OLD

The new ration books issued between May and July 1943 included personal points, used for the purchase of sweets and chocolate; coupons for all rationed foods (left); and clothing coupons (right). Personal points and food coupons came into use from July 25; clothing coupons from September 1. Personal points and clothing coupons were detachable from the food book, but their issue bound as one saved time and trouble in preparation and distribution.

Stocks of food had been steadily accumulated since 1939 so as to maintain a fair and consistent distribution. The supplies from India and Ceylon had sufficed to maintain the tea ration; and the loss of almost all our sources of rice had been compensated, at least in part, by increased production in Brazil and the U.S.A. Subsidies kept the price of food stable (during 1943 £205,800,000 was spent on food subsidies, including over £60 million on bread, flour, and oatmeal; £23 million on meat and £13 million on potatoes, £11 million on eggs, and nearly £11 million on milk, and the same on sugar), so that food prices were only 20 per cent above pre-war. This should be compared with the rise of 108 per cent in the spring of 1942, the fourth year of the last war. Many other commodities, which were rationed, were also subsidised.

cent of petrol; the scheme for moving seed potatoes from Scotland had saved about 250,000 tons of transport, and soft drink concentration had taken about 1,000 vehicles off the road. British Restaurants now numbered over 2,000 and were rapidly increasing;

the number of meals served in these and works canteens, catering establishments, etc., was approximately 180 millions a week. The national loaf was the best, and the only unrationed bread in Europe, and at 2½d. a pound the cheapest food in the world.

All this would not have been possible but for the devoted labours of the British farming industry. In March Mr. R. S. Hudson, Minister of Agriculture, appealed to farmers to plough up an additional million acres, and at the same time urged the growing of yet more vegetables in gardens and allotments. In three years British food production had increased 70 per cent, of which 60 per cent was due to increased output per man unit. By now, the Minister could proudly boast, the British farm worker was producing nearly three times more than the German, and incidentally substantially more than the worker in America. On May 20 Mr. Hudson ordered a four-year plan for agriculture, which would ensure that the country would be able to produce enough food to last for four years.



FAIRMONT GOES INTO GOLD STORAGE

One measure of domestic reform, at least, was put on the Statute Book: the Bill for the regulation of wages in the catering industry. Fathered by Mr. Bevin, the Minister of Labour, this was hotly opposed by a section of the Conservative party who accused the Minister of breaking the political truce by promoting a highly controversial issue. Mr. Bevin stuck to his guns. He wanted the Bill, he declared, because it was necessary to put a great industry on a satisfactory basis ready for the post-war rush of tourists and other visitors. The Bill became law in June, and the Wages Board authorized thereunder was soon after set up.

Another and far more important measure of reform was the Education Bill, the text of which was issued in December, although the Educational proposals it embodied were outlined in a White Paper published on July

17. The Bill was hailed as the greatest step in educational progress since the Fisher Act of a quarter of a century before. Under it the school-leaving age was to be raised to 15 on April 1, 1945, and to 16 as soon as practicable thereafter; the school system was to be entirely remodelled on the plan of nursery schools for children under 5 (voluntary), primary schools for children in the 5-11 age groups, and secondary schools for children over 11. All these schools were to be free, and local education committees would be



LORD WAVELL LEAVES FOR INDIA

Field-Marshal Sir Archibald Wavell, appointed to succeed Lord Linlithgow as Viceroy and Governor-General of India on June 19, 1943, became Viscount Wavell of Cyrenaica and Winchester on July 1. Shortly before his departure he said, 'I have no illusions as to the difficulties and dangers of my task, but I have also a vision of the great possibilities in front of India.' He is seen here with Lady Wavell and their daughter Felicity leaving England for India, which he reached on October 17. He was installed as Viceroy at New Delhi on October 20.

Photo, G.P.U.

required to provide free medical treatment and inspection and would also receive new powers to provide meals and milk and, in cases of real need, free boots and clothing. For young

people up to the age of 18 not attending school full time there would be Young People's Colleges, part-time attendance at which would be compulsory. All primary and secondary schools would begin the day with an act of corporate worship, and Church schools would have the choice of being either aided (when they would meet half the cost of modernizing their buildings and continue to appoint their own teachers and retain control of religious instruction) or controlled, when full financial responsibility would be assumed by the Local Education Authority, but the managers would be consulted as to the appointment of head teachers and those teachers giving religious instruction.

More Cabinet changes were announced on November 11. Lord Woolton, who had been an outstanding success as Minister of Food, became Minister of Re- New Minister construction, with a of Food seat in the War Cabinet.

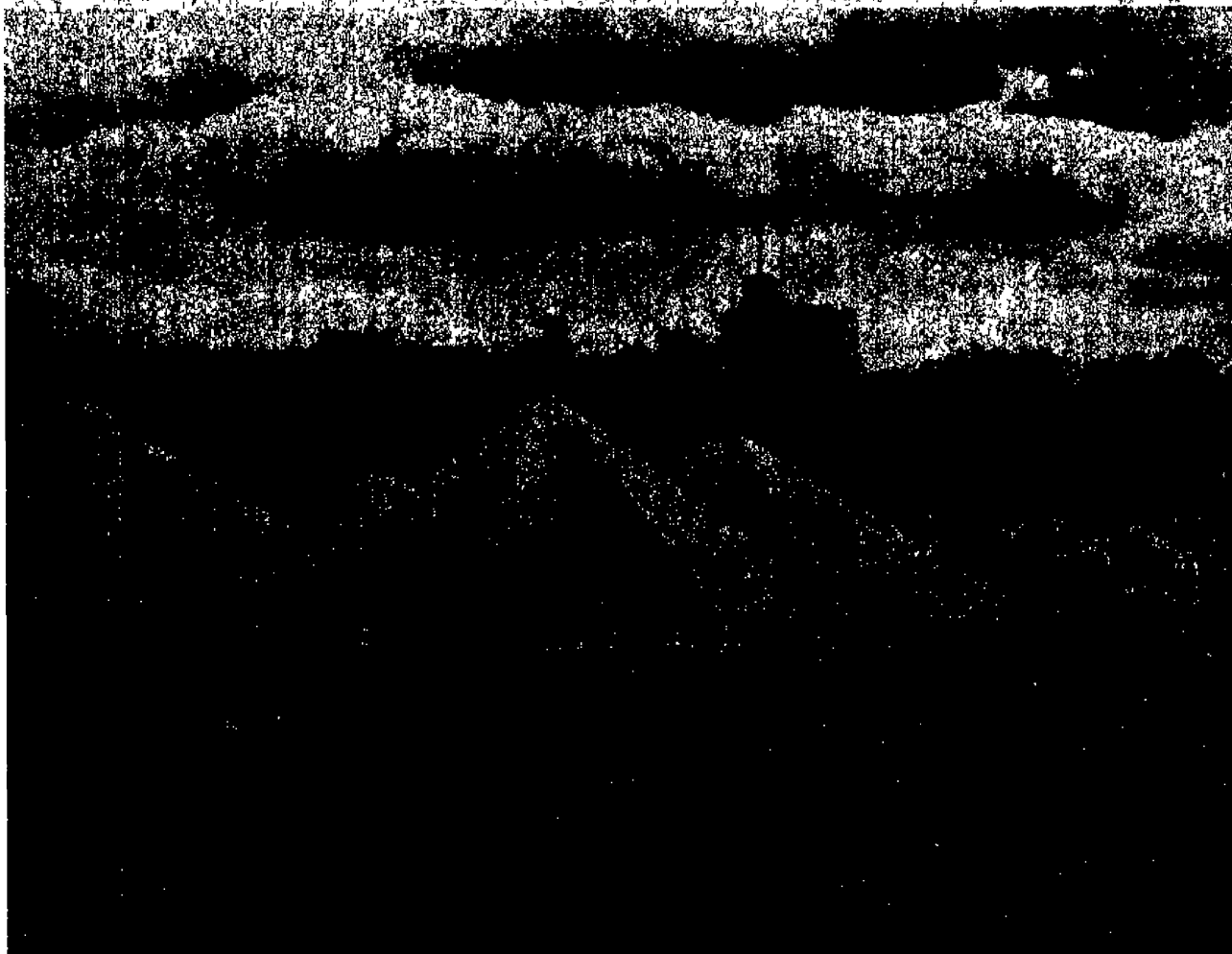
Col. Llewellyn took his place at the Food Ministry. Mr. H. U. Willink became Minister of Health in place of Mr. Ernest Brown who was appointed Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster.

Lord Woolton's appointment encouraged those who were anxious to see some progress in the plan for new and better housing. It was announced on the 11th that the Lord of the Manor

FIRST FAIR IN WINDSOR GREAT PARK

In 1943, as in 1942, the Government recommended that workers in industry should have a week's holiday during the year. But, to avoid non-essential travel and to prevent confusion and difficulty in food distribution, everyone was advised to spend holidays at home. Many local authorities provided open-air attractions in the form of concerts, dances, and other entertainments. H.M. the King permitted a fair to be held in Windsor Great Park as part of the 'holidays at home' movement.

Photo, Planet News



he made it clear there would be no Ministry of Reconstruction with a large staff. As he envisaged his position, it was that of a co-ordinator of the plans put forward by other ministries and departments. This rather limited view of his powers and responsibilities chagrined some of his critics, who also regretted his statement that "for some years to come we shall be a nation poor in wealth," which, taken in conjunction with a somewhat similar utterance by Field-Marshal Smuts (in his speech to the Houses of Parliament on November 25, that after the war Britain "from a material economic point of view will be a poor country," since she had put her all into the struggle), fostered their fears that finance would make a strait-jacket in which the new post-war Britain would be cramped and stifled and unable to grow.

Throughout the year the Home Front was dominated by the problem of coal production. Coal lay at the bottom of

the country's life, it was the basis of its capacity to make war. Yet insufficient coal was being produced, and nothing that was tried seemed able to lift the figure to what was needed to supply the domestic hearths, the fighting forces, and the demands of our overseas allies and friends. When the year opened, a National Coal Board of coal-owners and miners, coal distributors and consumers, under the chairmanship of Major Gwilym Lloyd George, Minister of Fuel and Power, had just come into being. In April the Minister said that he was watching the production figures with serious concern: although there were at the moment over 5,000

more men in the industry than a year earlier, the production each week was nearly 10,000 tons less than in the same week of 1942, and absenteeism among miners was higher than it should be. In a broadcast on April 14 he said that though the gap of 11 million tons between production and consumption had been closed, the production position was far from satisfactory. In May a scheme of conciliation for the settlement of all disputes came into force. A National Conciliation Board was set up, consisting of owners' and workers' representatives in equal numbers, with two chairmen representing both sides, and a National Reference Tribunal of

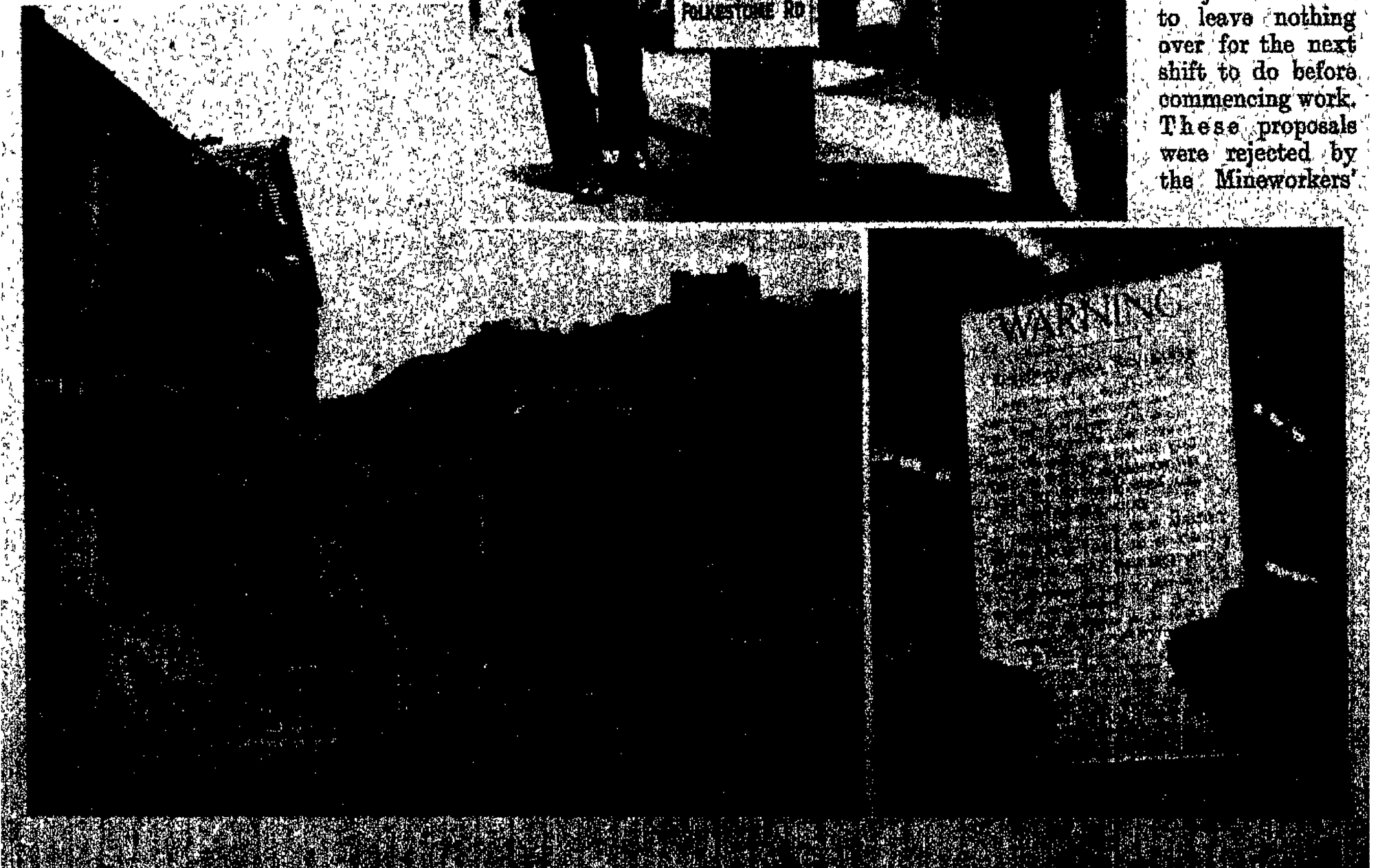
three permanent members, unconnected with the industry and appointed by the Master of the Rolls.

Still the fall in output remained unchecked, and in September the Government proposed to the miners' leaders that there should be more Saturday work, full time work on one Sunday in four, and clearing of the coal face at every shift so as to leave nothing over for the next shift to do before commencing work. These proposals were rejected by the Mineworkers'

COASTAL AREAS CLOSED

From time to time areas in Britain, particularly on the coast, were closed to visitors. Bottom right is a warning notice at a London terminus. But life went on in these areas—even in bomb- and shell-scarred Dover. Right, a notice at a Dover omnibus stop: though a number of employees were killed, and many more wounded, by enemy action, the East Kent 'buses never stopped running, even during the Battle of Britain. Below, recent damage being roped off in a street under the shadow of Dover Castle.

Photos, Topical Press; "Daily Mirror"



'IN THE MEDITERRANEAN WE HAD 3 CRUISERS LEFT...'

Only after the surrender of the Italian fleet on September 11, 1943, did the British Admiralty make public the desperate state of the Allied naval situation in the Mediterranean in the winter of 1941-42. The continuing need, in view of Allied shipping problems, for increased food production in Great Britain, and the Government's forward-looking policy for agriculture, were the theme of an important address made to the Council of Agriculture on May 26 by the Minister of Agriculture.

MR. A. V. ALEXANDER, FIRST LORD OF THE ADMIRALTY, BROADCASTS ON SEPTEMBER 16, 1943, A REVIEW OF THE NAVAL WAR IN THE MEDITERRANEAN FROM THE OUTBREAK OF WAR TO THE SURRENDER OF THE ITALIAN FLEET.

IN September 1939 the British and French fleets together were so superior to the German that there was no fear of our losing command of the seas. . . . In June 1940 the position was changed almost overnight. The French fleet went out and the Italian came in. . . . Fortunately, we had in the Mediterranean a C-in-C. of great spirit and resource. . . . "Because of our weakness," said Admiral Cunningham later, "our policy had to be one of aggressiveness, and it paid handsome dividends." . . . It was decided to attack the Italian forces in harbour at Taranto by aircraft of the Fleet Air Arm. On November 11, 1940, the 10 Swordfish planes which took part in that remarkable attack succeeded in crippling the Italian battle fleet for a considerable period. . . . This was followed by a series of disasters which threatened our whole position at sea. . . . The crisis in our fortunes was reached in November and December 1941. On November 14 H.M. aircraft-carrier "Ark Royal" was torpedoed and sunk; on the 20th the Australian cruiser "Sydney" was sunk; on the 24th the cruiser "Dunedin"; on the 25th the battleship "Barham." Then came the treacherous attack on Pearl Harbor . . . followed almost immediately by the sinking of H.M.S. "Prince of Wales" and "Repulse." . . . Fortunately, the enemy did not know completely our precarious position, and for vital months we managed to conceal from him the damage to the "Queen Elizabeth" and "Valiant" and the sinking of the "Barham." In the Mediterranean we had three cruisers left, yet our men fought on, working wonders. Our greatest problem was Malta. . . . Supplies were falling and at times could be measured in weeks. . . . A small convoy got through in January, but an attempt to get another through in February had to be abandoned. In March Admiral Vian, in command of the 15th Cruiser Squadron, was sent to make another attempt. He met the Italian fleet and the Luftwaffe, and his battle with them is one of the most brilliant in our naval history. . . . One of the four supply ships was sunk ten miles south of Malta, and another, the "Breconshire," was hit when almost home. . . . The other two were bombed in harbour, but most of their cargo was saved.

IN June Admiral Vian was again on the Malta run. . . . The convoy did not get through. . . . However, a convoy had been simultaneously passed from the Western Mediterranean, and in the face of incessant attacks by the enemy air forces some of the ships reached Malta. The next convoy to Malta was in August. . . . Five ships only reached Malta. But Malta was saved by the supplies in those ships, which lasted until the victory of El Alamein. . . .

Offensive action against Rommel's supply lines was carried on, mainly by H.M. submarines and aircraft of the Fleet Air Arm and R.A.F. . . . H.M. submarines sank a total of 1,325,000 tons. These results are remarkable because the Mediterranean is perhaps the most difficult area in the world for successful submarine operations: 41 of our submarines were lost. In addition the Fleet Air Arm . . . succeeded in sinking 200,000 tons. Perhaps the most important result of our operations in the Mediterranean was the saving of Malta. . . .

an advanced offensive base, and from November onwards our grip on the inland sea has been steadily tightening. No large-scale enemy evacuation from Tunisia was allowed; there was little interference with our expedition to Sicily, and by the capture of Sicily the Italian fleet was irrevocably divided, one part at Taranto and the other at Spezia. . . .

MR. R. S. HUDSON, MINISTER OF AGRICULTURE, ANNOUNCES A FOUR-YEAR PLAN FOR AGRICULTURE, AT MIDDLESEX GUILDHALL ON MAY 26, 1943.

LAST autumn I asked for an additional 600,000 acres of wheat. That was a stiff demand. Well, it has been achieved, nay, more than achieved. I now confidently expect to get well over half as much again. Indeed, this year we shall have doubled our pre-war wheat acreage. Nor is that all. Our acreage under other grains—and all kinds of corn are now used for your bread—also shows a substantial increase. That is a great achievement. . . .

So much for the present. . . . You are also wondering about the future. . . .

I said that we were at present working on a Four-Year Plan for agriculture . . . which would take us up to the harvest of 1947. . . . You may well ask, "When are your demands on us going to cease or let up?" Quite frankly, I can't tell you. It's unsafe in this world to prophesy. If you insist, however, on a guess, I should say not before 1947 at the earliest. For even if victory in Europe comes before then the demands for food from our own soil will not abate. Ships will still be needed for other vital purposes. The Japs must still be beaten. The starving peoples of Europe must be fed.

Please remember that there are still over ten million acres of permanent grass in England and Wales. Not all of this, of course, is ploughable. But a large part of it can and should be ploughed in the next few years. . . . Much of our present arable has given of its utmost and borne two, or even three, white straw crops in succession. It needs a rest. But our present tillage area must not drop. We must still go on producing the maximum amount of crops for human and animal consumption. We must therefore adopt a policy of turning over more grassland for cropping while gradually reseeded to leys of varying duration our more exhausted plough land. Such a policy is really common sense if we are to preserve the fertility of our soil. It is in fact the gradual implementation of the ley farming policy which I believe must be the future basis of British agriculture over a large part of the country. I want to see every farm in every county with a plan worked out so that by 1947 every acre of land that can and should be ploughed on that particular farm shall have been turned over.

What will be the effect? The most important will be that we shall have millions of acres of land under leys of varying duration one-six years old. Those leys will be vastly more productive than the millions of acres of permanent grass that they will have displaced.

That leads us directly to the other half of our Four-Year Plan—namely, our livestock policy. We shall require a larger head of both cattle and sheep to consume the additional grass. It is my ambition to see also a very material improvement in the quality of those cattle and sheep.

Given ordinary luck in the weather (a factor I can't control) and reasonable supplies of fertilizers (a factor I hope to be able to control), we ought to be able, year by year, to increase the yield from the existing arable and tillage area, and to keep the improvement in livestock and livestock products which I visualize and I predict that when 1947 comes the agriculture of this country will never before have attained.

NAVAL OPERATIONS IN THE PACIFIC: 1943

Allied naval weakness had enabled Japan to gain rapid ascendancy in the Pacific in 1942; but America's mounting output of craft and of trained crews, and the release of British ships after the surrender of Italy, made possible during 1943 that process of steady 'island-hopping' which was an essential preliminary to attack on Japan herself. Earlier phases in the Pacific naval war are recorded in Chapter 241

THE year 1943 began in the Pacific with the Japanese positions still very strong, although somewhat weakened through attrition and shipping losses due to Allied submarines and aircraft—a weakening which not only made it difficult for the Japanese to keep their garrisons in the south-west supplied but also reduced the flow of loot from the occupied territories to Japan, to the disappointment of both the public and the productions departments.

The Allies' first care was to maintain this pressure on lines of communication, and in the meantime to collect strength for the advance on Japan from both north and south. In all Pacific operations, the Allies' greatest difficulty was the enormous distances over which a prepared enemy of great strength had to be approached. The Japanese had been helped over these same distances by years of preparation, fifth-columnists in every territory, the element of surprise, and the weakness and over-confidence of the Allies.

Both sides adopted the policy of diffusing their opponent's strength and attention by carrying out numerous nuisance raids by all arms, strong enough to force the other side to take them seriously, on shipping and land positions in widely separated areas. By the beginning of 1943 the enemy was making little attempt to advance farther to the south or west; he seemed rather to be bent on making the occupied territories as defensible as possible and putting their products to the greatest use.

The main policy of the Allies was to tie down the Japanese forces in New Guinea, New Britain, and the Solomons by strong forces on land, supported by air and sea power, and then to work northward through the most easterly of the islands, the Gilbert and Marshall groups, and thus to turn the flank of the strong Japanese bases at Truk in the Carolines, and in Guam and the Philippines—the second and third taken from the U.S. since Pearl Harbour.

In the far north the Japanese were tied down to the west coast of the Aleutian Islands by constant attacks

along the chain. Canadian-American pressure on Kiska and others of the islands was maintained steadily, sometimes to the tune of eight and ten raids a day, until the Japanese finally evacuated them in August, after which the Allies maintained complete secrecy about them. Repeated Allied air attacks were also made on the Kuriles, leading to

Japan proper, particularly on the naval base at Paramushiro.

In the Indian Ocean the strategical aim of the Japanese was to keep the British occupied and so prevent their joining the Americans in any great strength, but their nuisance operations in this area were not carried out in sufficient strength fully to accomplish



LAST MINUTES OF A JAPANESE BATTLESHIP

This is a small photograph of a Japanese battleship, possibly the Yamato, at sea. The ship is viewed from a low angle, emphasizing its size and the smoke rising from its funnels. The image is somewhat dark and has a high-contrast, historical quality.



AMERICANS LAND ON ATTU ISLAND IN THE ALEUTIANS

A Japanese landing on Attu, westernmost of the Aleutians, was reported in June 1942. They abandoned it a little later, but reoccupied it in November of the same year. American warships bombarded enemy positions there in February 1943, and in May several landings were made, that shown here being on the black volcanic beach of Massacre Bay. By the end of May all organized resistance had ceased. Kiska, 195 miles to the east, was also occupied by the Japanese in June 1942; its reoccupation by American and Canadian forces in August 1943 brought the whole Aleutian chain once more under Allied control.

Photo, Associated Press

their purpose. In July it was announced that there had been no Japanese submarines in the Mozambique Channel for three months—their main surface strength was devoted to protecting their own supply line in Burma, where their forces were kept supplied almost entirely by sea.

The strong Japanese positions and naval bases in eastern New Guinea, New Britain, New Ireland, and the

Allies Occupy Guadalcanal Solomon Group, attack on which had already started, were the first concern of the Allies at the beginning of the year. The enemy continued his unsuccessful efforts to regain Guadalcanal; after some big troopships had been sunk by aircraft, destroyers and small craft made repeated attempts to work ashore and were generally driven off with little difficulty, although their activities imposed a great strain on Allied units. In heavy sea and air fighting which started at the end of February, when the Japanese were driven off the island, the Allies

ships. In February Guadalcanal was fully occupied by the Americans. The U.S. Navy Department stated that Japanese losses in the Solomons campaign had been at least 50,000 men, 797 aircraft, 57 ships sunk (including at least one battleship and many heavy cruisers), seven probably sunk, and 102 damaged.

The harbour base at Rabaul, greatly strengthened by the Japanese, was kept under air attack almost without intermission, and a large number of enemy supply ships and men-of-war were sunk or damaged—they had little space in which to manoeuvre against attack from the air. Seriously damaged ships had to be taken to Singapore or Truk for repairs.

The most important Pacific action of the year, the Battle of the Bismarck Sea, developed out of the sighting, on March 1 by Allied reconnaissance planes, of a big Japanese fleet bound from Rabaul to New Guinea. The weather was bad, and the enemy probably had hoped to make his movements unobserved, but the discovery of the fleet led to the battle.

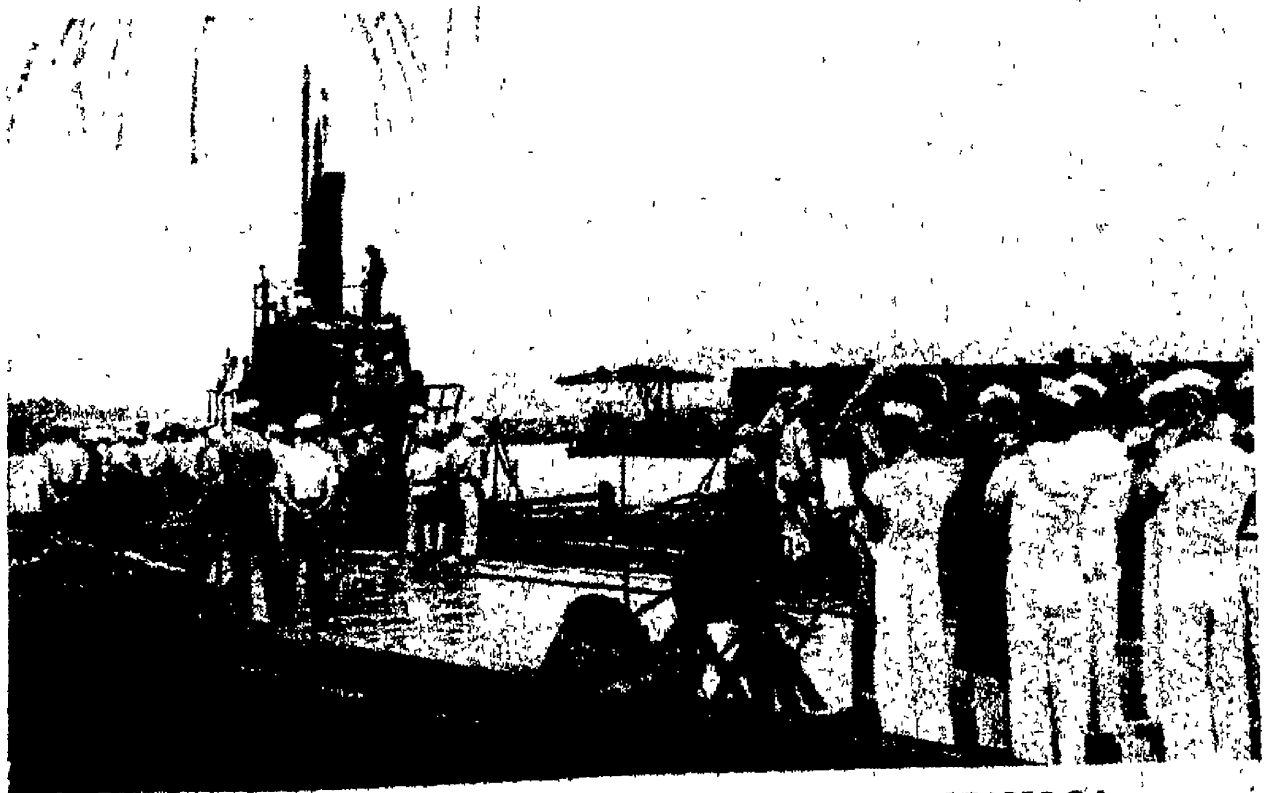
Commander of the United Nations Forces in the South-West Pacific, had assembled a striking force of all available American and Australian aircraft in the area. On March 2, Fortresses and Liberators of this force began an intensive attack on the augmented convoy. It went on all day in face of heavy A.A. fire and decreasing opposition from Japanese fighters, nine at least of the ships being sunk that day. The rest of the convoy steamed on into the Huon Gulf where, on March 3, the attack was continued. Fortresses, Liberators, Havocs, Beaufighters, Mitchells, Lightnings, Kittyhawks, Bostons, and Hampdens flew in at mast-head height, dropping over 100 tons of bombs. Transport after transport went down, packed with men and material, together with more destroyers. Action still went on against the burning remnant of the Japanese fleet; not a ship reached Lae.

The Battle of the Bismarck Sea—a naval victory won by air power directed by an army general—was, said General MacArthur on **Battle of the Bismarck Sea** March 4, "a victory of such completeness as to assume the proportions of a major disaster for the enemy. His naval component consisted of 23 vessels, representing a tonnage equivalent at approximately 100,000 tons. They have all been sunk, and the survivors are being taken prisoner."

In surprise dawn attacks on April 2, 3, and 4, 26 Fortresses, without loss, sank or badly damaged seven enemy warships, including two cruisers, and five other vessels off Kavieng, New Ireland. On the 7th, an Allied force near Guadalcanal was attacked in its turn, one U.S. destroyer, one tanker, and one New Zealand corvette being sunk at a price of 39 Japanese planes. Seven U.S. planes were lost.

Another phase in the Pacific operations started on June 29 with further American landings in the Solomons.

This led to two actions in the Kula Gulf, which lies between Kolombangara Island and New Georgia, when the Japanese were reinforcing New Georgia: a day action on July 6, in which the Americans claimed six destroyers sunk and other ships damaged, for the loss of the cruiser "Helena"; and a night action in which British ships took part, on the 12th-13th, when a Japanese light



MUSICAL WELCOME FOR U.S. SUBMARINE 'WAHOO'

The 'Wahoo,' returning to Pearl Harbour after a Pacific patrol during which she brought the total of her sinkings to eight, entered port with a broom lashed to her periscopes as a symbol that she had made a clean sweep. On December 2 the U.S. Navy Department announced that she was overdue and must be presumed lost with her complement of about 65.

Photo, Keystone



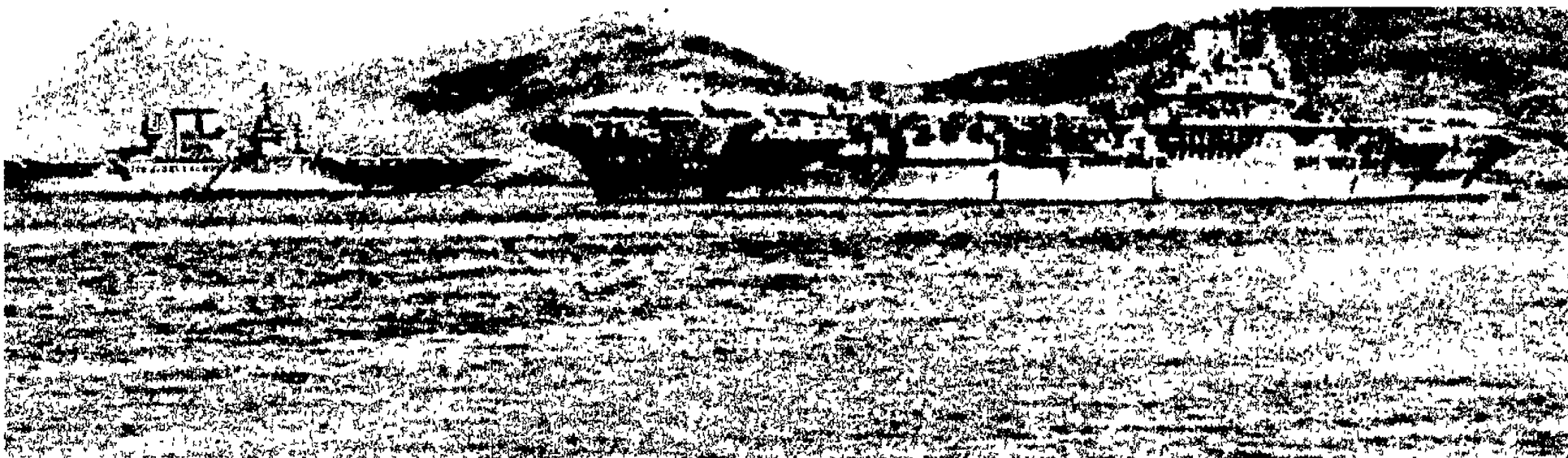
THE NIGHT BATTLE OF KOLOMBANGARA

The night battle of Kolombangara, in the Kula Gulf, was one of the most intense naval engagements of the Pacific War. It took place on the night of July 12-13, 1942, between the Japanese fleet and the Allied fleet. The Japanese fleet, commanded by Admiral Kondo, consisted of the cruiser Helena, several destroyers, and other ships. The Allied fleet, commanded by Admiral Fletcher, consisted of the cruiser Helena, several destroyers, and other ships. The battle was a tactical draw, but it was a significant victory for the Allies in terms of morale and the loss of the Japanese cruiser Helena.

cruiser and three destroyers were sunk, two more destroyers believed sunk, the survivors in the water refusing to be rescued by the Allied ships. The U.S. destroyer "Gwin," torpedoed in the action, later foundered while in tow. As was so often the case in high speed actions in the Pacific, conditions made it impossible to assess the Japanese losses accurately.

On August 6, Japanese warships packed with troops to reinforce Vila, the main Japanese base on Kolombangara, were intercepted off that island. Allied Progress. A cruiser caught fire, in the Solomons blew up and sank; two destroyers were claimed, with another damaged and believed sunk. Tokyo admitted one, with another damaged, and claimed an American—a claim not admitted by the U.S. Early in September Allied ships were busy covering several new landings in New Guinea. On October 6 nine Japanese destroyers were caught evacuating troops from Vella Lavella in the Oranienstein; three were reported sunk.

These actions, on their turn, led to a big Allied progress in the Solomons, with a series of landings and the capture of the Japanese base at Vila. The Japanese fleet was then defeated in the Battle of the Santa Cruz Islands on November 26, 1942, and the Allies were able to advance further into the Solomons.



ALLIED AIRCRAFT CARRIERS IN THE PACIFIC

British, American, and Australian ships and aircraft of all types co-operated in the Pacific war zones. Here are the British aircraft carrier H.M.S. 'Victorious,' from whose decks U.S. Navy fighters and torpedo-bombers operated during her service with the U.S. Pacific Fleet during 1943, and beyond her the U.S. aircraft carrier 'Saratoga,' lying side by side in harbour at Noumea, New Caledonia. They formed part of a task force under Rear-Admiral Dewitt C. Ramsey, U.S.N.

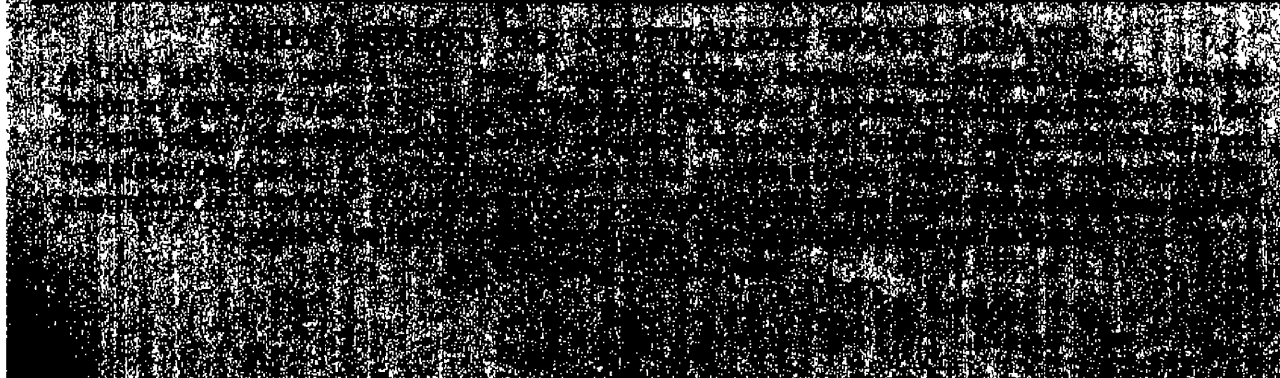
Photo, Keystone

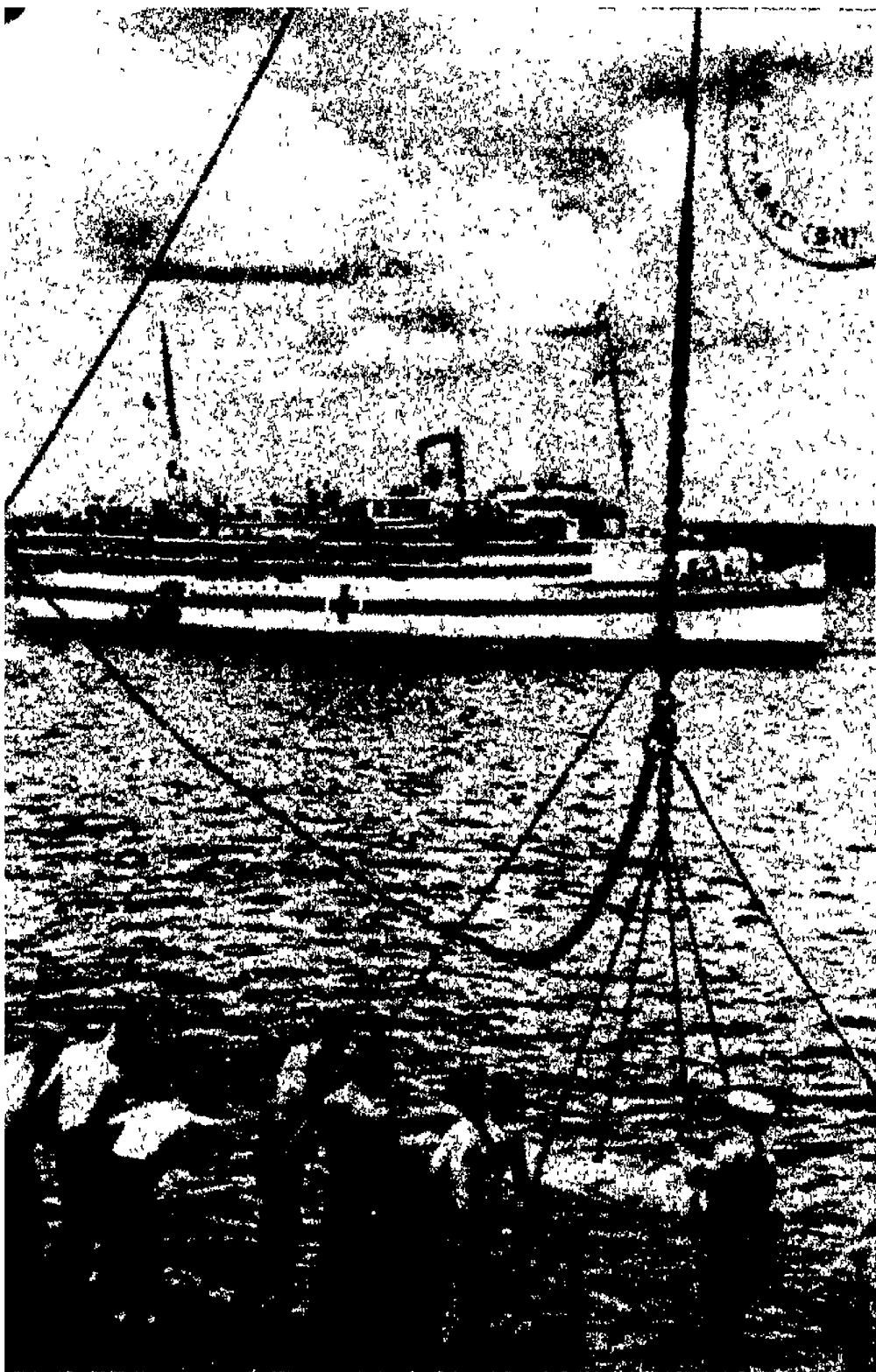
British, Australian, and New Zealand Navies worked in the closest co-operation, whose effectiveness increased steadily with improved knowledge of one another's systems. Air co-operation was also most satisfactory, and combined operations with the armies were brought to a very fine pitch of efficiency. The U.S. Navy made greatly increased use of the motor torpedo-boats which were being turned out in large numbers and manned by enthusiastic young volunteers; they found a happy hunting ground in the waters adjacent to innumerable inlets and bays in the Solomons and claimed a number of victims among enemy warships and supply vessels.

Attacks in narrow waters on the supply fleet became so effective that many of the enemy's land positions had to be revictualled at night by submarines, many of which were successfully attacked. The U.S. submarine fleet—conspicuously the "Wahoo" until she was sunk, the "Guardfish" and the "Gudgeon"—took a very heavy toll of supply ships also, sinking them not only far afield, but in home waters as well—occasionally even in

sight of the Japanese coast. Matters were made worse by repeated air attacks on all the dockyards and repair bases in Japanese hands. By September it was estimated that nearly a quarter of the tonnage with which Japan started the war had been sunk, including a large proportion of her best ships. As the year progressed the Japanese themselves admitted that the shortage of shipping was becoming very serious. Native labour in the occupied territories was impressed to build large numbers of wooden vessels of native type, but fitted with Japanese diesel engines. These improvised ships were considered to have a better chance of getting through than large vessels, but the state of positions captured on shore by the Allies suggested that the enemy supply service was far from satisfactory. Allied successes against Japanese communications were not achieved without a price—and there was a steady succession of Washington announcements of lost named U.S. submarines.

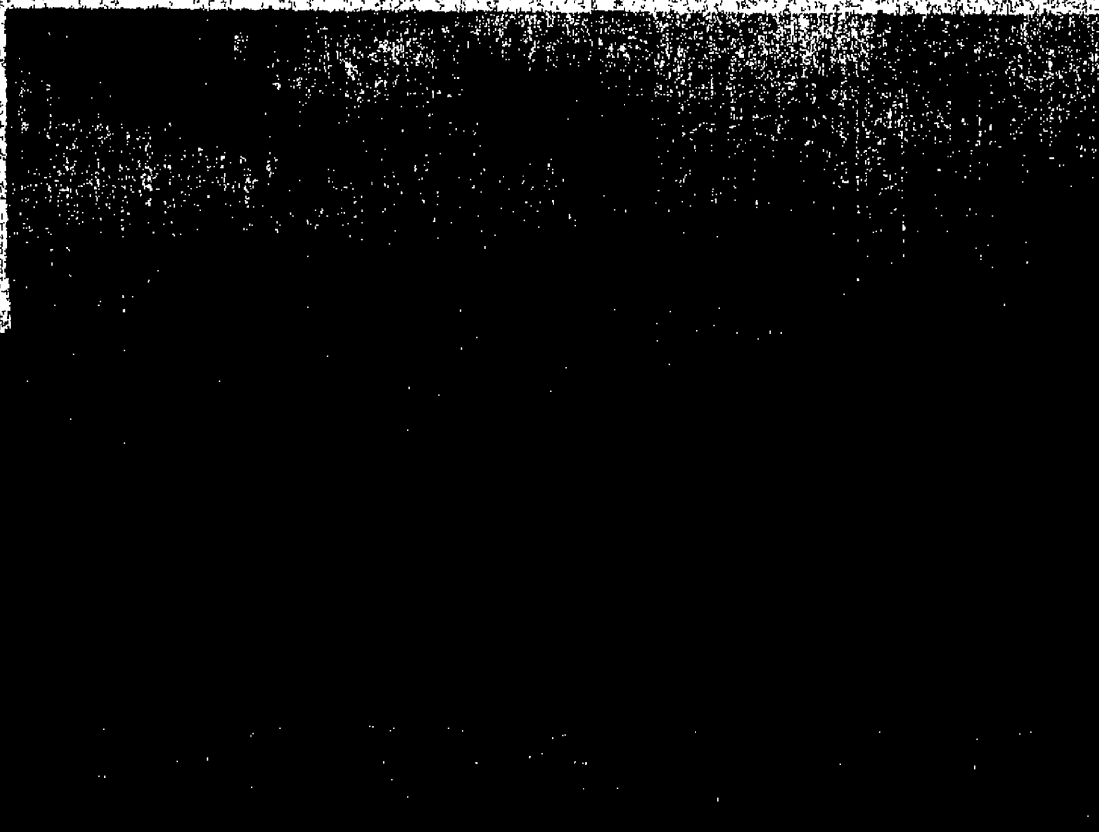
Having made themselves tolerably secure in the south-west, leaving the Japanese positions in the extreme west to take care of themselves, the Allies began to work northward, but having sufficient land forces in New Guinea, New Britain, and the Solomons to prevent any effective new moves, the Allies began to work northward through the eastern groups of islands. The occupation of the Ellice group was announced in April. Task forces, consisting of all types of ships, but including numerous aircraft carriers, both regular and auxiliary, were used, and the northward movement was continued by the main effort, supported by the smaller units, to the Ellice group. The occupation of the Ellice group was announced in April. Task forces, consisting of all types of ships, but including numerous aircraft carriers, both regular and auxiliary, were used, and the northward movement was continued by the main effort, supported by the smaller units, to the Ellice group.





RECAPTURE OF THE GILBERT ISLANDS

Between November 20 and 23, 1943, the Americans recaptured the Gilbert Islands in the Central Pacific. On Makin, the most northerly, their casualties were 65 killed and 121 wounded; but at Betio Island in the Tarawa atoll, the U.S. Marine Corps fought its bloodiest battle to date: 1,026 were killed and 2,557 wounded in this action. 1. Transferring to hospital ship men wounded in Tarawa landings. 2. Assault troops about to go ashore at Makin; the first wave has already reached land. 3. Naval guns blast Tarawa: 2,000 tons of shells were hurled at Betio Island, where the enemy had built strong defences. 4. Landing craft streaming towards Betio Island: coral reefs stopped them 800 yards from land, and the Marines had to wade that distance under murderous fire.





NIGHT ACTION OFF VELLA LAVELLA

An Allied warship, her engines damaged, hurls A.A. shells at Japanese bombers during the successful surprise American landing at Vella Lavella, northernmost island of the New Georgia group, on August 15, 1943. The Americans lost 10 men as the result of five enemy air raids during the operation; they took 350 Japanese prisoners. The capture of Vella Lavella made the reinforcement of the Japanese base at Vila on Kolombangara a very difficult problem for the enemy.

Photo, "New York Times" Photos

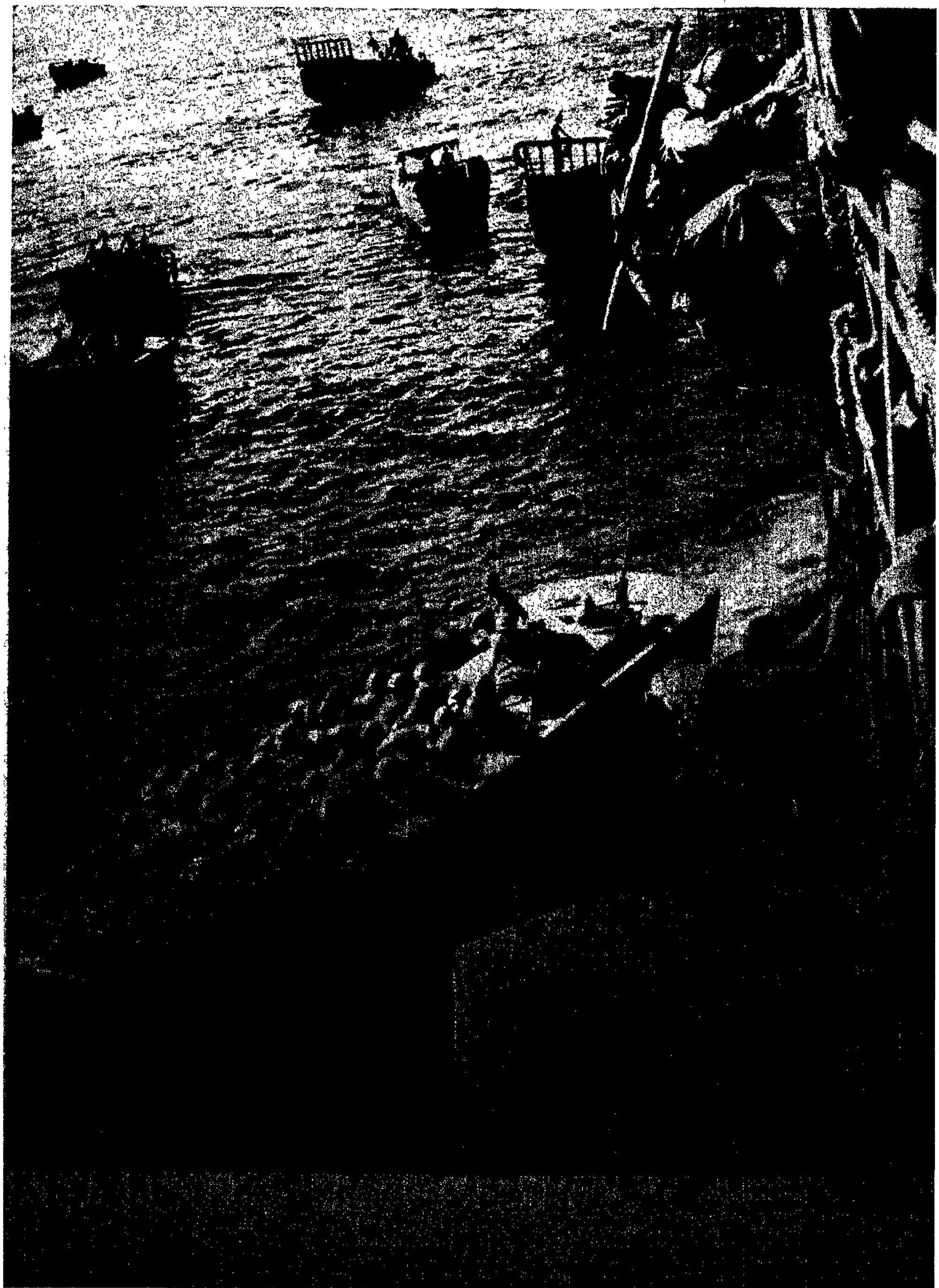
They were not only better sea boats and faster than the old destroyers, but their special short range gun proved ideal for high speed action. The new kind of destroyer was a real improvement.

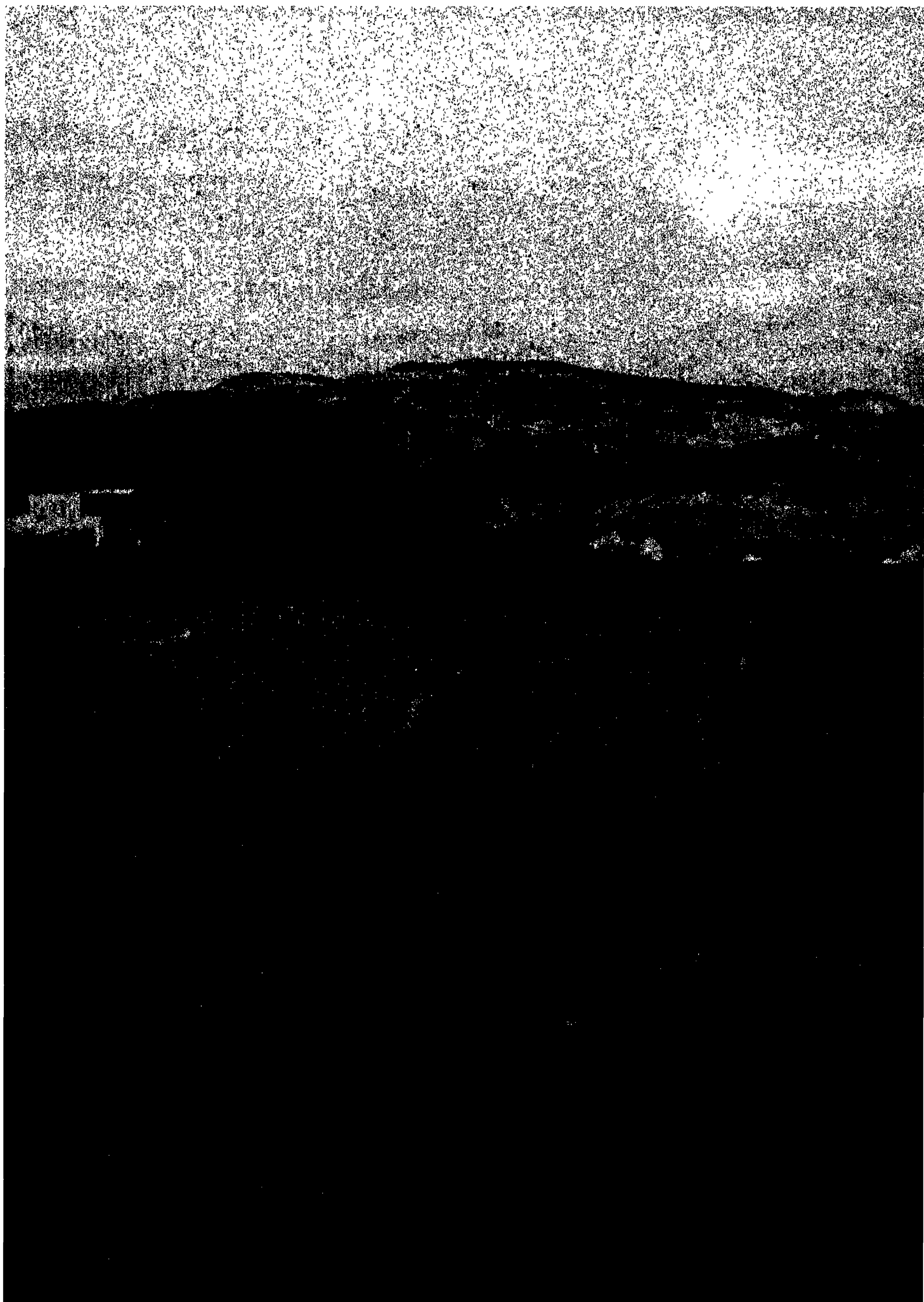
last man. Carrier-borne planes bombed Japanese positions in the Mariana Islands and Caroline, making the capture of the base at Truk impossible. In May a submarine surfaced in the Pacific Ocean and was seen by

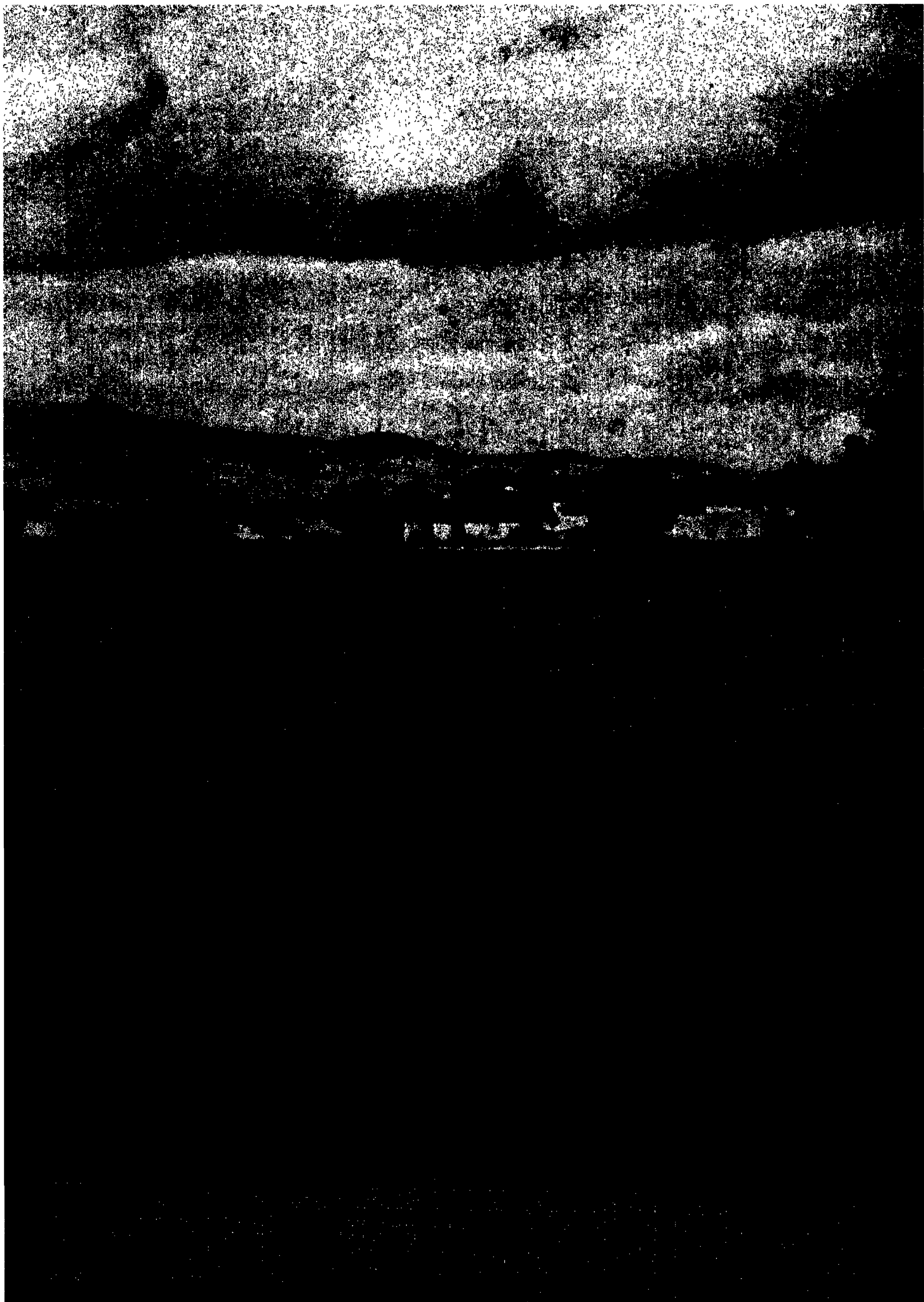
China, attacked the Shinshiku air base on Formosa; while on November 1 a new American landing was made at Bougainville under powerful naval cover, the attack being preceded by an air bombardment of Rabaul which put the Japanese 8th Cruiser Squadron out of action. Ships were hurried south from Truk to replace it. Four cruisers and six destroyers put out from Rabaul, but made off; returning in the early morning with two more destroyers, they were intercepted 40 miles from the landing place and a cruiser and four destroyers were sunk. U.S. warships also beat off a daylight attack by 67 dive-bombers, shooting down 17 of them. The Japanese at first claimed to have sunk four American battleships, at least eight cruisers, and three destroyers. Then they added two more cruisers and another destroyer, with a battleship and an aircraft carrier damaged, and finally a large and two medium carriers, three cruisers, and another large warship. The Americans admitted the loss of two destroyers and another converted into a transport.

On November 20 bridge-heads were established in the Gilbert Islands in the Central Pacific, 1,000 miles north-east of the Solomons; the Allied auxiliary aircraft carrier "Liscombe Bay," sunk by submarine attack on the 24th, was the only American ship lost in connexion with these landings. At the end of November, and for a large part of December, the Japanese made frantic attempts to get stores and reinforcements to their garrisons, generally by destroyers or under destroyer escort, but Allied light surface craft and aircraft intercepted many of these in the various channels, successfully adapting the Japanese tactics of earlier days.

On Boxing Day the Americans made a new landing at Cape Gloucester, New Britain, in the course of which one of their destroyers was sunk and one coastal transport damaged. While these extended operations were in progress, Rabaul continued to be subjected to incessant air raids, which did great damage, very much reducing its value to the Japanese Navy. In a spirited destroyer action at Rabaul on November 20, four Japanese ships were sunk and one damaged and an American destroyer, the USS Johnston, was sunk.









Photo, British Official

GRENADIERS OF THE GRENADIERS IN A TUNISIAN WADI

The Grenadiers moved through the Kasserine Pass in February 1943, the main Axis force—including heavy armour—retreating through the same pass. The Grenadiers were met by German forces at Jifra, where it came into contact with 'Vicforce' (see page 2620). In the course of the battle, the Grenadiers took towards the Kasserine Pass where, in the expectation that his armour would make a stand, they expected to find the enemy in full retreat through the Pass under a rain of bombs from Allied aircraft.

To cover this discouraging train of events, Tokyo reported exaggerated Allied losses at sea—in October the Japanese navy was said to have sunk 25 Allied battleships, 15 aircraft carriers, 105 cruisers, and 114 destroyers, while two months later Tokyo claimed the sinking of the U.S. battleship "Wisconsin" in the Pacific within 48 hours of her launch at Philadelphia! On the other hand, on December 13 Premier Tojo admitted that "It cannot be said that the Japanese Navy has the war situation under complete control."

The surrender of Italy in September released a number of British warships for service farther east. H.M. aircraft carrier "Victorious" had served with

the U.S. task forces in the Pacific for some time; she and battleships which had been in European waters since the beginning of hostilities joined the Eastern Fleet. This constituted a serious threat to the Japanese Western wing and led to increased Japanese activity in the Indian Ocean. Carrier-borne planes raided the Indian and Ceylon coasts, and machines from Burma raided Chittagong and other ports in Bengal; while enemy submarines were spasmodically more active all over the Indian Ocean, achieving

some success and diverting Allied naval strength that could have been usefully employed elsewhere. But, despite enemy stories of operations by surface raiders in the same areas, there was no serious attempt to interfere with the control of the Indian Ocean by the British and Royal Indian Navies.

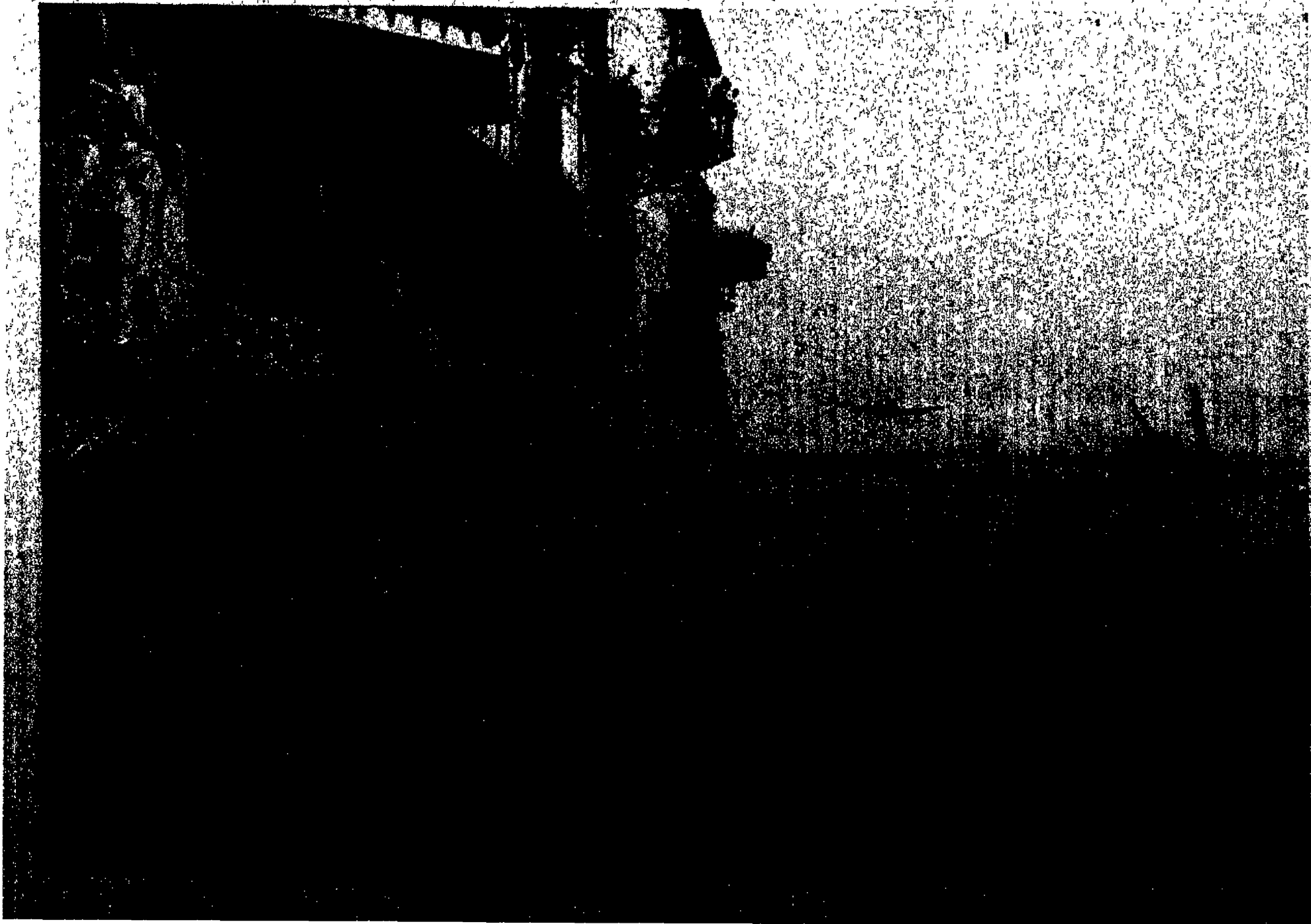
As the year progressed it became evident that the Japanese regarded the Pacific war as being separate from Germany's struggle in Europe. Badly needed supplies of rubber, tin, etc., were shipped to Europe in German blockade runners which had been sheltering in Japanese ports since 1939; many of them were intercepted and scuttled themselves to avoid capture. Liaison officers were sent to Bordeaux in a Japanese submarine and landed in very bad shape. But Tokyo made a special broadcast to the German people, telling them bluntly that they had their hands much too full to send any help to Europe; and neither country hesitated to arrest and sentence the other's nationals for espionage.

On the technical side, the year in the Pacific was notable for the employment of a variety of landing craft carefully evolved for the varying conditions of different operations. The Allied landings in the Pacific (and in North Africa, Sicily, and Italy, too) were, in fact, largely made possible by the production of special types of landing craft, tank lighters, and similar vessels, such as the Higgins landing boats. Aircraft carriers, specially designed both for work with the fast task forces and for less exacting operations, also played a conspicuous part in Allied strategy. The enemy had made great use of converted carriers in his big southward sweep, but he appeared to find them too vulnerable once Allied sea and air power began to grow, and little was heard of these vessels in 1943. Certain corvettes and other small craft were specially adapted for work in the immense distances of the Pacific; and the vulnerability in that ocean of ships of the cruiser type presented the naval designer with a number of problems to be solved.

RETURN FROM A BOMBING MISSION TO RABAU

A Hamilton dive-bomber comes in to the U.S. aircraft carrier "Saratoga" after dropping its bombs on Rabaul, the Japanese-held port in New Britain, during a heavy raid by an American task force on November 5, 1943. Nineteen Japanese warships, including five heavy cruisers, had recently docked there. All the heavy cruisers were hit—one was seen to blow up—as well as two light cruisers. Twenty-four Japanese fighters were shot down, with 22 probables, for the loss of eight Allied aircraft.

Photo, U.S. Official





ROYAL WEST KENTS IN TUNISIAN HILL-FIGHTING

The 1st Battalion, Royal West Kent Regiment arrived in Siliiana in January 1943 and at once began to dig in. The unit was relieved by a hard-pressed French unit on Djebel el Ghazal, beyond Rohas (see map, p. 2617) to relieve a hard-pressed French unit on Djebel el Ghazal. After the enemy had been given a severe shelling by Allied 25-pounders (one of which was destroyed in action), the West Kents pursued him in retreat until on January 29 they lost contact. At the same time they regained were handed over to another French unit. Right, a wounded soldier, who was out on patrol six miles ahead of the Royal West Kents' position on January 29, was found in the arm and three times in the stomach. He lay out in lonely country for some time before he was found by Moroccan troops, who carried him in their blankets.

ANGLO-AMERICAN OPERATIONS IN TUNISIA DECEMBER 1942—FEBRUARY 1943

Here, Mr. A. D. Divine continues from Chapter 256 his first-hand account of the fighting in French North Africa, carrying the story of the campaign in northern Tunisia up to the Battle for the Kasserine Pass at the end of February 1943. Concurrent operations by the Eighth Army in southern Tunisia after the fall of Tripoli are described in Chapter 265

THE second portion of the Tunisian campaign divides itself naturally into three phases. The first was a phase of reorganization with, as its object, another thrust for Tunis. When that died stillborn under the dual influence of Longstop Ridge and the mud of the Tunisian winter, a second phase of consolidation began. It was apparent now to all concerned that the Germans had won, at least temporarily, the race for reinforcements. There was no hope of an easy thrust through to the twin seaports of the north, Tunis and Bizerta, and it was clear from the rate at which fresh reinforcement was coming in that the battle would be a long one and a hard. During this second phase, then, the Allies concentrated on securing the line that ran from the north by "Bald Hill" and "Green Hill" through the Djebels to the north of Medjez-el-Bab, across the Goubellat Plain and by Bou Arada down the long spine of the dorsale to Gafsa and the desert. That phase of consolidation may be said to have ended with the series of three defensive offensives initiated by the Germans, the culminating attack of which was that delivered in the Ousseltia valley against the French.

The third period was one of preparation and experiment, preparation for an attempt at a thrust through to the coast

Preparation in the extreme south of the fighting area—and a thrust, that is, to Sfax or Gabes. It ended in the last of the great German offensive defenses—the Battle of Kasserine.

There was talk in England—even in Algiers during long stretches of this period—of static warfare. It was never static. There were points that remained stationary—fixed headlands in the coast of war—but over the rest of the line it was a coast subject to the flux and reflux of the tides of battle. It was a type of war that demanded enormous and fluid movements, marches that flung armoured brigades over a hundred miles of territory in a night to reinforce unexpected points of the front and back of the line. It was a war that demanded a high degree of mobility and a high degree of flexibility.

was a series of points: garrisons on passes that commanded roads, on isolated hills that commanded plains, at salient points on rocky mountain ridges—a sort of defence in fluidity.

And it was conditioned throughout the whole of the northern section—inevitably the most important, because of its proximity to Tunis—by the atrocious mud of the Tunisian winter. The first lesson in the Tunisian mud was learnt by American Combat Command "B" in the battle for Medjez which closed the initial stage of the Tunisian operations. The Allied forces continued to learn that lesson at intervals for many months. Tunisia, contrary to the general belief as to North Africa, has in winter a wet and unpleasant climate. There is black-cotton soil in the valleys and clay on the hillsides.

Save for three main lines of road, the communications are abominable, and under the influence of the winter rain

they failed at once to stand up to the necessities of tank and armoured car, of heavy lorry and of gun. And, with the roads, the air strips on which our strength depended failed. As far back as Oran the great aerodrome of Tafaroui was a vast and shallow sea of mud. At Algiers Maison Blanche, long-prepared, long-utilized by the French, became a horror of broken asphalt with mud pools oozing up through the cracks. In the forward areas Bône and Souk-el-Arba, the mainstays of our air position as far as the fighting line was concerned, were places of sheer nightmare. In considering the first two phases of this period, it is imperative always to bear this in mind.

During the reorganization phase of the second part of the Tunisian campaign, the losses in the first thrust (see Chapter 256) were made good. The brigade which had attacked through Medjez-el-Bab was partially rested,



partly in the night. The British Command 'B' was pulled back to the front line. The plan of Suk el Khemis and the road was not ideal. In the night part of the American 1st Infantry Division under General Terry Allen including the two Combat Teams which had attacked it. On the east end to replace Blade Force came the 6th Armoured Division to strengthen. Lieutenant General K. A. N. Anderson's division came the Guards Brigade and the Irish Brigade. Auxiliary units of various kinds were brought into the fighting area. The force became a formidable one. To it, as the American material came up was added the first American armour that could be spared.

By the middle of December 1942 plans were complete for the new attack. It was designed much on the lines of the old one—to follow a pattern conditioned by the fact that there were two dependable roads springing out of Medjez to the port of Tunis.

But there was a preliminary obstacle which had to be overcome. Immediately north of Medjez el-Bah, above the farm that had been the headquarters of Combat Command 'B' in the first fight, was a ridge that was called by the natives Djebel Ahmera. When we fell back down the road from Tebourba it was one of many 'Djebels.' We had not strength enough nor men enough to hold them all. When

the Germans fell back from the hill on the night of December 15, the main road was cut off. The Djebel el Ahmera and the Djebel el Ahmera in itself hardly more prominent in any way more remarkable than the rest of the scene of the tortured hill. The road along that road. But close examination showed that it was the last high hill on the way to Tunis except the companion mound of the Djebel Ben Aouliz opposite on the Tunis side of the river valley. Its military value for that reason was obvious and enormous.

The summit of Longstop Ridge, as our men christened it immediately was the strategic key to the roads which led to Tunis. From that summit it was possible to observe and indeed to maintain a degree of artillery control over the main road from Beja to Medjez el-Bah. It was equally possible to observe and direct artillery fire over the road which led from Medjez-el Bah to Tunis

and the subsidiary road which led south-east to Goubellit. The Medjerda road, which led through Tebourba to Tunis, ran close beneath it. No move could be made save at night on any of those roads without direct and exact observation. No move could be made in Medjez town. The bridge over the Medjerda was in the range of the guns that stood along the ridge and they plastered impartially traffic movements whether of tanks or trucks, men or material.

It was clear that before we could hope to make a successful attack along the roads the strong point would have to be eliminated. A battalion of the Guards was detailed to throw the Germans off the hill on the night of December 22-23. The weather was good. It had been dry for some days, the night was clear and the moon was only a few days past full. Early in the first darkness the Guards began their assault. We had learnt primary lessons in the art of hill warfare on the northern road at

Battle of Longstop Ridge

BATTLE OF LONGSTOP RIDGE

Djebel Ahmera—christened by the British, Longstop Ridge—was the strategic key to the roads leading to Tunis. The story of the attempt of a battalion of the Guards to dislodge the Germans from it in December 1942 is given in this page. Right, mortar-carriers go into action on the heather-clad slopes of Longstop. Below, Guards attack Longstop at dusk.

Photos, British Official. Crown Copyright



"Bald Hill." We had picked up secondary ones during the Tebourba fighting. But Longstop Ridge was to give us a new conception of "Djebel" warfare.

The attack went admirably at the start, but shortly it became obvious that the position was not the simple one that it had appeared from the distance. Folds of the ground too magnificent to be marked on contour maps or to be picked out through field glasses gave the Germans, once defensive positions were reached, a series of defensive positions. The Guards had to attack in a series of stages, and the attack was not a simple one.

way. They had to fall back at one point and reorganize themselves for a second attack before they reached what appeared to be the last summit, but with great gallantry they made the last re-established themselves in the half light and waited. Their task had been to seize the hill and the positions as then to be taken over by an American battalion.

The Americans came in and the Guards went down, but unfortunately the summit that had been occupied was not the final summit. There was very little difference—so little that it was impossible to see in the treacherous moonlight—but there was a higher level, and from it when the Americans were consolidating, the Germans poured heavy machine gun fire. The Guards, who had arrived back at their own positions by this time, had to turn round and march back again. Meanwhile, the Germans were bringing up reinforcements and a serious counter-attack developed.

But there was something more important than the counter-attack. On

made fresh attack—five of them altogether in 18 hours—in with the help of the American and the Tirul units. Although the clawed in and hung on through Christmas Day. But on the 20th they were forced to fall back on Medjez el Bab again.

The second thrust for Tunis was abandoned. It might be that if the weather had held we should have thrust more force into the attack on Longstop Ridge but with the roads difficult and the open ground impassable, any hope of the 6th Armoured Division breaking through to Tunis had now to be given up. We had to wait upon dry ground and it was a long time coming. The first phase of the new period was over.

During the consolidation phase, as troops became available, the Allies were able to make their long drawn line almost tangible. For practical purposes at the end of the initial dash for Tunis (described in Chapter 256) there had been three occupied areas in Tunisia.

the hill complex in the north with Medjez as its heart—the area of the dorsale about Pichon which lies in one of the gaps and which was occupied in somewhat doubtful strength by the pathetically ill equipped French troops and Gafsa on the edge of the desert, which was occupied by a mixed force of French American parachutists and American Tank Destroyers.

Now as reinforcements and new material came up fresh points were occupied, fresh areas developed. A link up of the line took place in theory if not in actual fact. The British held the sector from Cap Serrat through the Djebel to the Medjerda by Medjez and out across the Goubellat Plain to the hills above Pont du Fahs. The French held the area south of the Robaa road (which leads to Pont du Fahs) and along the great ridge of the dorsale past Ousseltia and Pichon to the road from Sbeitla to Kairouan. South of that area came American-held territory. There are not hard and fast divisions. There were French both in back areas and in the front line in the north as in the south. There were Americans in all three sectors. And the Derbyshire Yeomanry, in some sort of military parallel of the loaves and fishes, appeared to stretch their thin force over the whole of the 250 miles of the front. Wherever

Disposition of Allied Forces



ACTION NEAR BOU ARADA

An intended British attack on German positions in hills in the Bou Arada-Goubellat area (seen in the background of the photograph, left) was forestalled by a German attack on January 17, 1943, which continued through the 18th. But a number of 25-pounders which had been moved up preparatory to the intended British advance knocked out 18 German tanks (these among them) at 1,800 yards. Below, a Vickers' machine-gun post on 'Two Tree Hill' (see map p. 2617). The Germans captured this hill, but failed to take Bou Arada.

the morning of Christmas Eve it rained—the heavy, indignant Tunisian rain. As the Guards went back to stem the German threat, the main purpose of their attack was dissolving behind them as the red clay mired the roads. With tremendous *slam* they went through and re-established themselves on what appeared to be the summit at four o'clock on the afternoon of Christmas Eve. But once more there was a higher ridge beyond and now came the batteries of heavy machine guns that were the



cyclist, shot him, went on, and discovered that he was the scout for a force of a dozen tanks. The armoured car just managed to get clear and give the warning. The Germans attacked at three points on the front of about 25 miles. Thirty tanks attempted to cross the Bou Arada-Goubellat road, another 30 headed straight for Bou Arada itself, and German and Italian infantry plus Italian tanks attacked the French on the hills of the Robaa valley. Unfortunately for the enemy, the Allies had gathered together considerable strength in artillery to cover their attack and, under the massed guns, the German thrust broke: they lost more than half the tanks of the Bou Arada attack and failed to cross the Goubellat road.

On the 19th they attacked in the next valley to the south, the valley of Ousseltia. Through Ousseltia runs the road to Kairouan, the Holy City of the

plains. It was an important, possibly even a vital, gap in the line of the dorsale. And it

was held, and the valley behind it also, lightly by French, Foreign Legion, Goum and other troops. The attack there was mainly a demonstration. It was cleverly done, and it was designed to deceive the French authorities and General Alphonse Juin. It is probable that its success depended entirely on the success of the attack to the north; but the French, with their outposts pushed back and a thrust apparently developing up the valley, assumed that this was the point of the major break. It was necessary to reinforce them at once.

Combat Command "B," which had by this time been rehabilitated, had moved south to Sbeitla in the near-desert country. In the early evening the Command was put on the alert and by nine o'clock it had begun a march first over the broad road towards Le Kef and then over exorciating roads through Maktar to the Ousseltia valley. When Combat Command "B" reached the valley there was no serious enemy to fight. The German tank force was small but energetic, endeavouring apparently, according to plan, to indicate that it was much larger. When Combat Command "B" attacked, it withdrew. The Americans swept up the valley practically without loss, and American infantry from another force, turning right-handed along the Kairouan road, wiped the rearguard out of the pass. The rearguard was Italian.

The period might be said to have terminated finally in the lengthy fighting which went on about the mountains



SCENE OF THE TUNISIAN CAMPAIGN

The difficulty of the country is clearly indicated in this relief map of northern and central Tunisia, over which much of the Tunisian campaign was fought. Here are shown the relative positions of the strategic key points around which were waged the final stages in the Allies' successful struggle to throw Axis forces out of North Africa. Principal roads are marked by white lines, and railways by black.

Specially drawn for THE SECOND GREAT WAR by Peter Gordon

to the Germans in the capture of the Djebel Mansour in the head of the Robaa valley. It was something, but it was not enough. The Germans had hoped in this fighting to consolidate in their turn the corner of mountain peaks to which they would obviously eventually have to retire. It was only a partial consolidation.

But there was one more move of some significance. At the beginning of February the Pan Germanic Division

made a tank sweep of the Goubellat Plain with the object of testing the German defences and at the same time testing the quality of the ground. There had been no rain for five days, but at the end of the sweep two tanks were bogged in no man's land and remained stuck to the ordinary level of the plain. The last hope of a breakthrough was thus ended.

The Allies' final offensive was launched on March 7, 1943, and the German



CHURCHILL TANKS IN ACTION IN TUNISIA

Coldstream and Grenadier Guards repulsed a strong German tank and infantry attack near Sbiba on February 19, 1943. Following this success, a unit of the 6th Armoured Division went in with its Churchill tanks. After very heavy fighting the German thrusts towards Thala and Tebessa were halted at all points. Above, a few hundred yards behind the Guards' positions, crews of the Churchills gave their weapons a final check as zero hour approaches. Below, the Churchills carry forward men of a Field Coy of the R.E., whose job it was to lift enemy mines and clear a way for the armour. (See also illus., page 2549) Photos British Official Crown Copyright



was decided at a meeting between Lieut-General Anderson, General Alfrey, Brigadier Eveleigh and the American commanders. General Oliver was in favour of a swift thrust before the German's increasing strength could make it possible to defend the wide area of this mountain plain. The object of this operation was the capture of the high ground between the plain and the sea, a line to the east of the town of Tebessa. The capture of this high ground would enable the Allies to outflank the German positions and to advance towards the coast.

out a narrow arm of shallow water almost to the coastline. Even where the shallows cease there is marshland. While the Chott itself was not an absolutely impassable barrier (there were roads and tracks across it at various points after dry weather), it was an important obstacle, and for a variety of reasons it could have been made impassable to any force attacking it. The German positions on the plain were well sited to observe the sea and the coast, and the Allies had to be prepared to face a strong and determined resistance.

Whether that would have been possible can scarcely be decided now. There is, however, small question that the Allies could have reached it in the early days had they attacked as soon as force became available. The objection to carrying this attack out in insufficient strength was that a small force might be left suspended between two mill-stones—the retreating Rommel on the south and Von Arnim on the north. It was finally decided, therefore, that the Allies would gather strength at Tebessa, and would not move forward until dumps of ammunition, food and other supplies had been prepared in the neighbourhood of the ancient city sufficient to maintain a force strong enough to overcome the objections.

When Combat Command "B" was recalled from Sbirtia a move had been planned which had for its main object the seizure of country ahead of the Faïd Pass. Allied Thrust towards Sfax. This move was cancelled. Instead, a strong combat force was assembled in the magnificent Bou Chebka pine-woods in the hills beyond Tebessa, and in conjunction with a second force, which had been assembled in Sbirtia and about Sidi-bou-Sid, moved in to the attack.

The object of this attack was in a measure nebulous. If it overran the opposition, it was to thrust clean through in an attempt to reach Sfax. Its course was then to be determined largely by the reaction of the enemy.

The move was made from Bou Chebka on the night of Saturday, February 20, 1943. The attack was launched at 11.30 p.m. and the main force moved towards Sfax. The attack was successful and the Allies reached Sfax on the morning of February 21, 1943.

through Thelapte to Gafsa the whole command moved at high speed. Long before dawn it was beyond Gafsa nearly 80 miles away, and by dawn the sweep up the valley towards Maknassy began. It was checked at Station Sened in a brief two-day battle in which casualties on either side were moderate but in which green American troops suffered heavily from the air. Station Sened was carried and the line pushed beyond it to the ridge which commanded Maknassy town.

The Germans had been present in greater strength than Intelligence had anticipated, but in the northern sector the section of the Faid Pass, their

German strength was greater still. The attack from that end failed to develop. It was held on

the edge of the Pass, and the southern arm of what was to have been a pincer movement was left in the air. The Americans had to withdraw from Station Sened with little to show for a well-executed operation but a few hundred prisoners and the destruction of a store of German and Italian material.

It was clear that the time for an easy dash across the hamstrings of the German body was past. The period of building up began afresh at an increased pace. The whole of the American 1st Armoured Division was now moved into the area with infantry and ancillary troops to match. The dumps at Tebessa covered square



PACK ANIMALS OF THE FIRST ARMY

In the difficult country of French North Africa, the First Army was glad to call to its aid for transport those old friends of armies on the march, the horse and the mule. Here is a string of pack animals loaded with supplies for Allied troops moving through the hills of Tunisia in January 1943.

Photo, British Official. Crown Copyright.

miles of ground and the Germans allowed them to accumulate unmolested. Allied air power was rapidly achieving something more than parity. This southern area was out of the winter rainfall zone, and there were good aerodromes around Tebessa and at Thelapte and Feriana.

For a while there was quiet—suspicious quiet. Rommel was falling rapidly back to the Tunisian frontier, and it was clear that the quiet could not long continue. If the Allies were ever to achieve the Gabes gap, the hour was very nearly upon them. In the north quiet was still enforced by the rains. There was fighting—some of it bitter—but though the lines moved from one grove to another here, though they surged back between valley and valley there, there was no major movement.

was the earth dry enough for battle—and in the south it came.

Again the Allies were fore-stalled—neatly, dangerously. The American 1st Armoured Division had moved through Tebessa and Bou Chebba down the road to Sbeitla, and Combat was established in the ancient Roman town. Command 'A' in Action. Their line was held by the American Combat Command 'A'. In reserve was Combat Command 'C'. Combat Command 'B' was still at Maktar, standing by against another possible German incursion in the Ousseltia valley. The rest of the reserve and headquarters lay behind Sbeitla. At midnight on Saturday, February 13, the Command was put on the alert, warned of a possible attack at dawn. But dawn was quiet. Not until an hour or so after first light did the Germans show their hand, but after that hour they acted with amazing speed and vigour. They swept through the Faid Pass, isolating the forward Allied infantry. They swept up other roads about the Lersouda Mountain on which was a mixed force guarding the left flank of Combat Command 'A,' and they threatened the little white town of Sidi-bou-Sed itself. The Allies were forced to abandon the town and withdraw by the one road which still lay open. And on that road they were challenged by a German tank force coming to them from the direction of Sbeitla. The Allies were again on the defensive.



AXIS COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF IN TUNISIA

Generaloberst Jürgen von Ardenne, one of Germany's foremost specialists in building defences against tanks, was appointed to succeed General Rommel as commander-in-chief of Axis troops in Tunisia in January 1943. This was the first photograph of him to reach England. It shows him shaking hands with a German shock troop leader. He was captured on May 13 and reached England shortly afterwards.



ALLIED AND ENEMY HEAVY ARMOUR

One of the reasons for the apparent slow progress of the Tunisian campaign was the mud produced by the winter rains, which made movement of tanks impossible; but in February, in the battle for the Kasserine Pass, they were able to play their part. Above, Shermans moving up in the advance on Kasserine. Below, German 62-ton 'Tiger' (Mark VI) tank—one of 70 tanks which supported a heavy attack towards Thala on February 21, 1943. Armed with an 88-mm. gun and two 7.82-mm. machine-guns, the 'Tiger,' though no larger, was nearly twice as heavy as the Mark IV (see illus., page 2236), owing to the great thickness of its armour (7-8 inches).

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright

the remnants of Combat Command "A" reached the main Sbeitla valley.

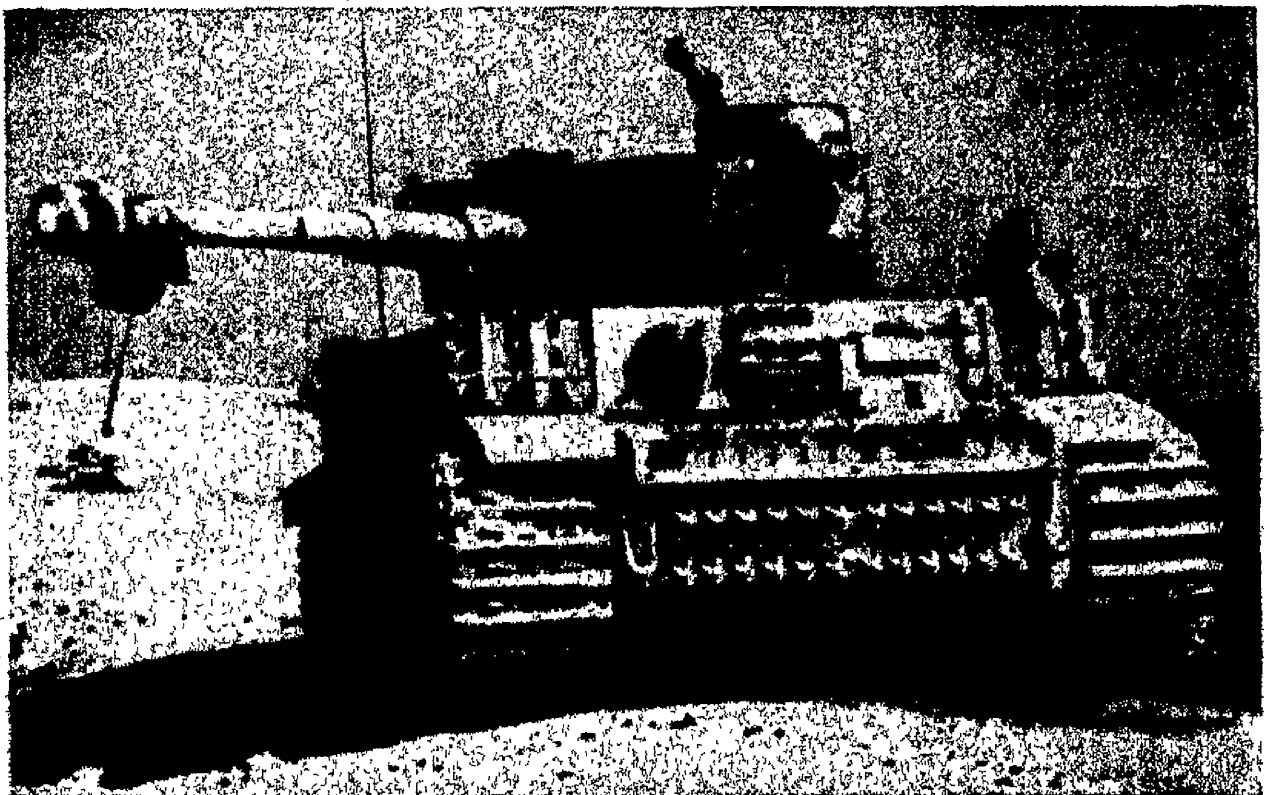
On Sunday, the 14th, the Germans contented themselves with consolidating their gains, and on Monday, the 15th, Combat Command "C" was

Americans thrust in in an attempt to restore the position, Walk into to free the men on the Tank Trap Lessouda Mountain and

to free the infantry still holding out on the hills above the Pass itself. Combat Command "C" flung its whole tank force, following it up with soft-shelled vehicles, across the wadi-seamed plain towards Sidi-bou-Sid. They were new to warfare, and particularly to the ingenious warfare of the German. They neglected reconnaissance on their flanks and walked into a tank trap set with absolute genius. The whole of their tank force was lost in the space of an hour, and only the last-minute turning of the German counter-attack from the right flank saved the remnants of their soft-shelled vehicles.

Two Combat Commands were out of action, and the situation was critical in the extreme. Meanwhile Combat Command "B," the veterans of the American fighters, had been called down from Maklar. They bivouacked outside Sbeitla, and were given a position to hold on the low hills where attack was anticipated.

On the Tuesday General Ward began to withdraw his command from the high ground on the enemy side of the pass. By Tuesday night the German front had moved up to the hills at Sbeitla, and the American tanks were



the 1st Armoured Division withdrew along the road to Kasserine and through the Kasserine Pass. Gafsa had been abandoned in conformity. The Allies were in process of giving up their forward aerodromes at Thelepta and Feriana. The whole force was swinging back into the Tebessa area.

A magnificent stand by Combat Command "B's" tanks outside Sbeitla saved the retreat of the American 1st Armoured Division, but that stand was not enough. The Germans came on. They made a thrust at once up the straight road that leads towards Le Kef, forcing their force, while the second arm continued west for the Kasserine. The northward thrust was probably a bluff. It was not met, but it was a bluff. It was not met, but it was a bluff.

25-pounders and the 5th/16th Lancers. The main force, meanwhile, had broken through the narrow Kasserine Pass, and again it split. The going had been too easy. As before when opposition had been slight, the Germans decided to seek more than the first plan had allowed for. Once more they split, trying with a force adequate for one task to break through both to Tebessa, and also up behind the British First Army to Le Kef, and perhaps the valley of the Kroumerie.

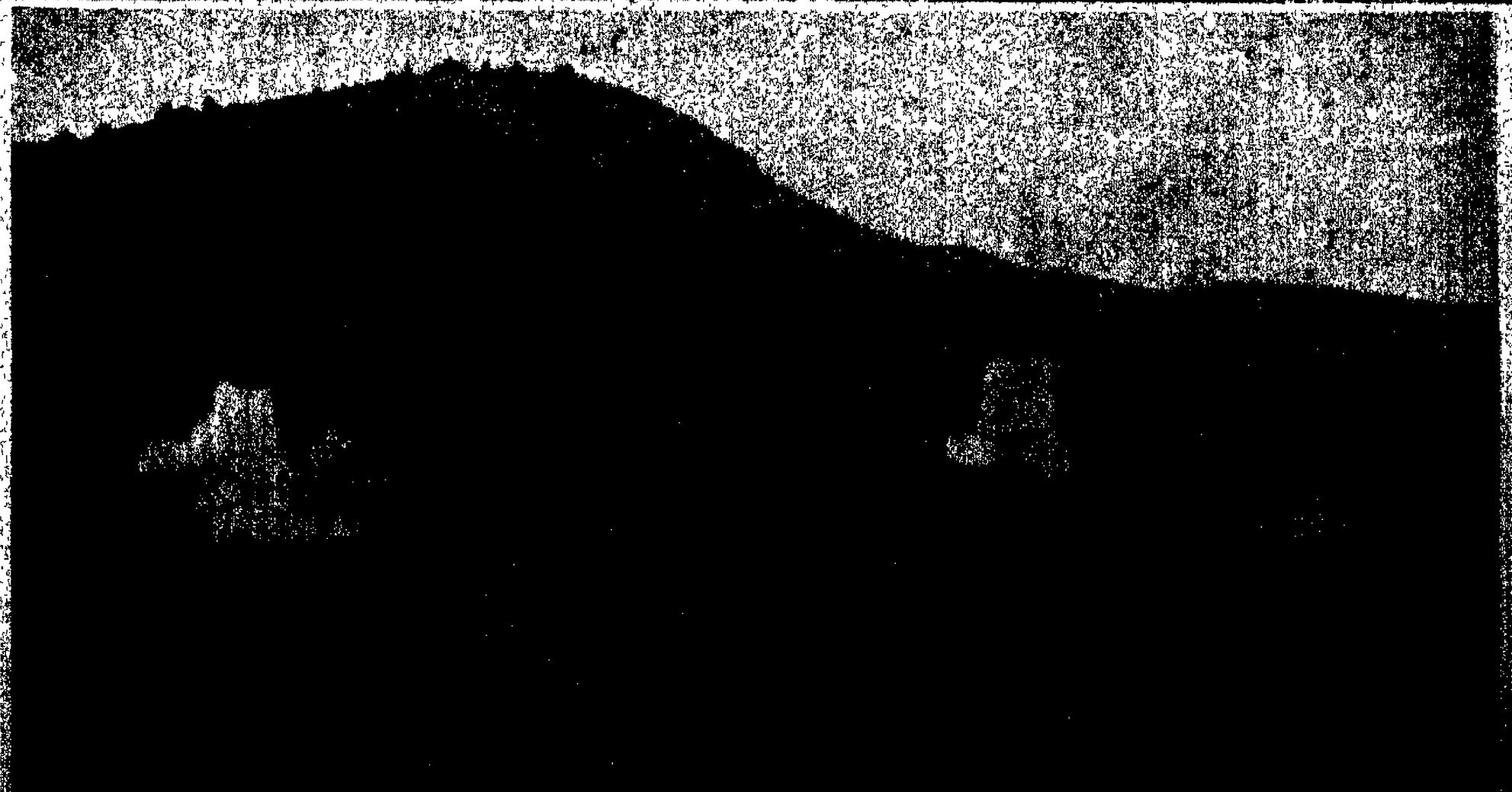
The force which attacked towards Tebessa was the weaker. It was met again by Combat Command "B" and American infantry, and defeated. The main attack went up the broad Thala valley. It was met there by the defiantly named "Vicforce," a scratch handful consisting of a battalion of infantry, the 17th/21st Lancers, the Lothian and Border Horse, and sixteen 25-pounder guns. The Lothian and Border Horse fought a superb delaying action while the rest of Vicforce dug itself in.

On Sunday, the 21st, the real Battle of Thala began. It continued until Tuesday, the 23rd. The tiny Vicforce lost heavily, but it held the 10th Panzer Division. It did more—it broke it. Moreover, the work of the Americans to the westward began to place pressure on the German lines of communication and withdrawal. By Tuesday evening there was no German left on the wrong side of the Kasserine Pass. By Thursday the Allies were through the Pass again. The Battle of Kasserine was over, and any hope that Von Arnim may have had of disrupting the First Army in time to extend the walls of his bag before Rommel's army had gone. But with it had gone also any hopes of preventing the advance of the two German armies.



THE BATTLE FOR THE KASSERINE PASS

After making a thrust towards Sfax, the Allies in Tunisia were in mid-February 1943 forced to withdraw through the Kasserine Pass towards Tebessa. But in following them, the Germans overreached their strength, and on February 25 British and American infantry, supported by tanks, completely reoccupied the Pass. 1. U.S. troops examining the remains of German tanks blown to pieces by American gunfire. 2. Maj.-Gen. Terry Allen, commanding the 1st Infantry (New York) Division of U.S. forces in Tunisia. 3. American 37-mm. anti-tank gun and crew ; in the background can be seen shell bursts from enemy artillery in the Kasserine gap. 4. 25-pounder shells landing among German positions and tanks in the Pass.



EIGHTH ARMY'S ADVANCE FROM TRIPOLI TO THE WADI AKARIT

Anglo-American operations in northern Tunisia up to the battle for the Kasserine Pass towards the end of February 1943 were described by Mr. A. D. Divine in Chapter 264. The scene here shifts to southern Tunisia, where he records the Eighth Army's continued victorious advance, their great assault on the Mareth Line and the forcing of the Wadi Akarit.

IN the last days of January 1943 patrols of the Eighth Army crossed the borders of southern Tunisia. The topographical disposition of the German Army of Tunisia at this time is described in Chapter 264. Now the situation of the German Army of Egypt—Field-Marshal Rommel's army—has to be considered. Part of it—his best armoured divisions—had been in Tunisia for some considerable while, rehabilitating themselves on the

southern coastal plain and assimilating reinforcements of men and material. But the bulk of the Army of Egypt, having crossed the indefensible desert frontier between Tripolitania and Tunisia, withdrew to the Mareth Line. There were thus two enemy armies of Tunisia, one of the north and one of the south. The great Tunisian coastal plain, which stretches from Enfidaville to the southern frontier, is divided into two unequal areas by the Chott Djerid.

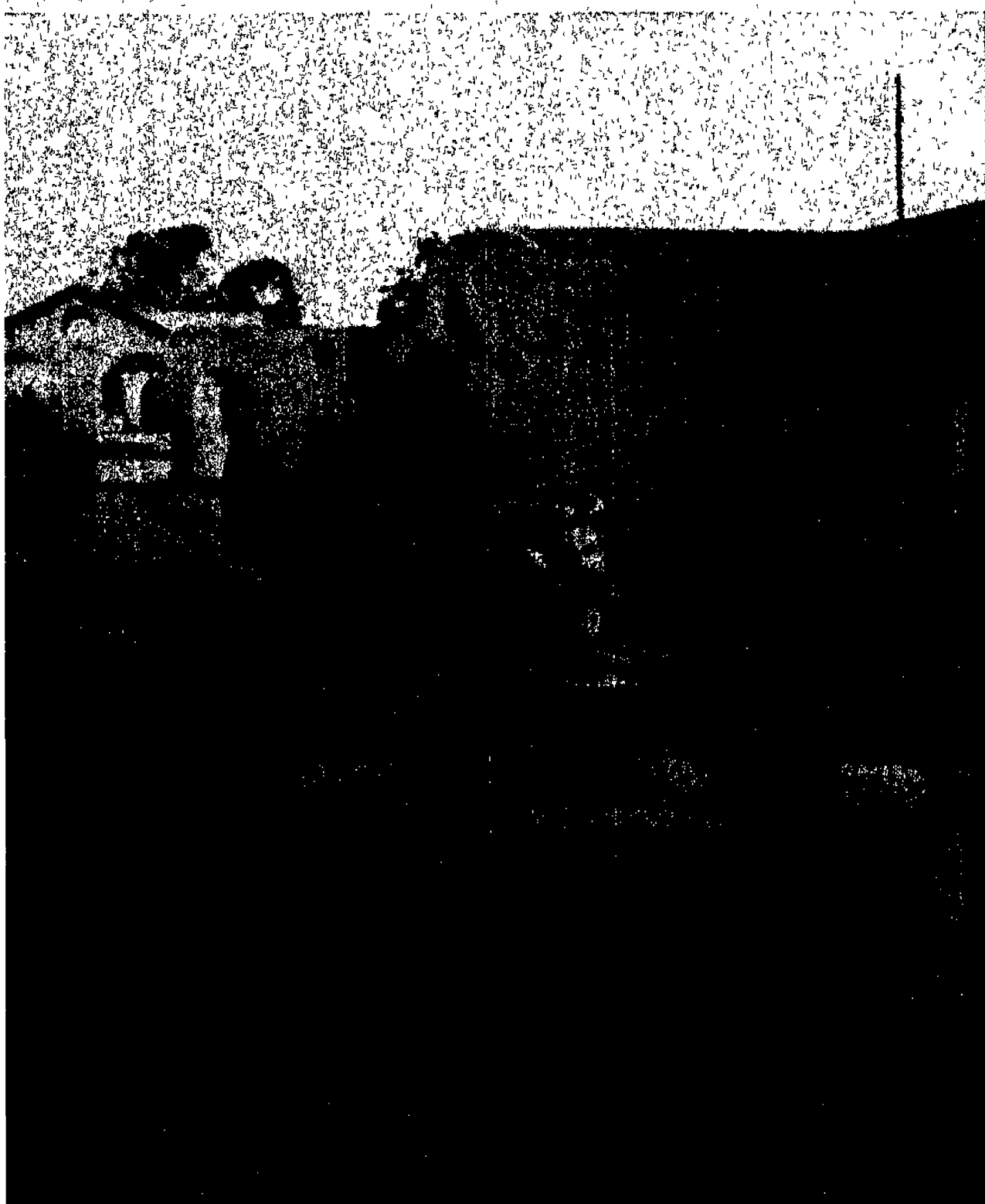
For the primary phases of the operation now to be described, the southern army was south of the Chott Djerid and south of the narrows of the Gabes gap where the Chott Djerid runs almost to the sea. (See map, p. 2624.)

There were two possibilities before Rommel and the German High Command: one was to stand on the Mareth Line—that Maginot rampart of Africa; the other to give battle on the Gabes gap where the narrows—the areas of marsh and the wadis that run down to the sea—offer a holding line of considerable natural strength. The decision, taken possibly after the failure of the American attempt to push through to the coast (see p. 2619), was to stand at Mareth.

The earliest date of importance in this new phase of the North African campaign is February 15, when the Eighth Army occupied Ben Gardane. This is the first town in southern Tunisia, and from it springs the beginning of the Tunisian road network. Rommel made his first serious attempt to check the swift forward movement of the Eighth Army at Medenine. That strange city of mysterious tunnelled houses fell to the Eighth after a vigorous action on Saturday, the 20th. The Germans had stood on strong positions, well supported by artillery, following the failure of a tank attack the previous day. The Eighth thrust through the olive groves a powerful force of tanks supported by 25-pounders and 4.5-inch guns in considerable numbers. Visibility was bad owing to dust, and while the guns kept the German front bitterly occupied, the Allies carried out a very swift movement on the left flank of the position. By the late afternoon armoured cars and tanks had swung round to the rear of the main position and were ascending the hills of the Ben Gardane region along the Gabes road. The German front was then broken, and the Eighth Army moved on to the sea.

THEY ROLLED UNOPPOSED INTO BEN GARDANE

Armoured cars of the Eighth Army's advance guard crossed the Tunisian frontier from Tripolitania on January 29, 1943. Sappers had to bridge the swampy lakes which lie about the frontier before the main body of the army could get through to occupy Ben Gardane, 20 miles inside the border, without opposition on February 15. Here are Valentine tanks of the Eighth Army—their drivers smiling—entering Ben Gardane. *Photo, British Official*





Subadar L. THAPA

Awarded the V.C. for conspicuous gallantry in leading men of the 2nd Gurkha Rifles, Indian Army, in an attack on the Rass-Ez-Zouai position (Wadi Akarit area) during the night of April 5-6, 1943. He killed four of the enemy with his kukri and two others with his revolver.

Pte. E. ANDERSON

At Wadi Akarit on April 6, 1943, Pte. Eric Anderson, a stretcher bearer with the East Yorkshire Regiment, went out three times under intense fire and brought in wounded comrades. Going out a fourth time, he was hit and mortally wounded; he was posthumously awarded the V.C.

Maj. D. A. SEAGRIM

Led the Green Howards under heavy enemy fire over a scaling ladder across an anti-tank ditch 12 ft. wide and 8 ft. deep to a vital position in the Mareth Line (March 20-21, 1943), which they held against severe counter-attack. He died of wounds, and was posthumously awarded the V.C.

Lieut. M. NGARIMU

Lt. Moana - Nui - a - Kiwa Ngarimu, a Maori serving with the New Zealand forces, 'killed on his feet, facing the enemy with his tommy-gun at his hip' while leading his men against the Djebel Tabarga (near El Hamma), March 26, 1943; he was posthumously awarded the V.C.

Maj. L. M. CAMPBELL

Major (temp. Lt.-Col.) Lorne MacLaine Campbell, Argyll and Sutherland Highlanders, was awarded the V.C. for his gallantry in forming a bridge-head for a brigade of the 51st (Highland) Division on the Wadi Akarit positions on April 6, 1943, and subsequently capturing six hundred prisoners.

Photos, New Zealand Official: Associated Press; Vandyk; Keystone

The battles of the north and of the south were interdependent, even as were the German armies of the north and of the south. It is essential to preserve a picture of the whole situation in considering the movements of the Eighth Army. In the north, while these things were happening, Von Arnim's army—which included some of Rommel's armour, those units that had been rebuilt in South Tunisia—was attempting two things. Along the line of the eastern dorsale it was striving to break the threatened American thrust to the Gabes gap. Along the line of the northern foothills it was attempting to widen the box into which Rommel's army must eventually withdraw.

This period from Sunday, February 14, to Friday, February 26, was the period of the Kasserine battles (described in page 253). On the morning of the 26th the German northern offensive up the Sidi Nsir valley opened (see map in page 254). This had as its objective Beja and the main roads which communicated with Medjer in the south and Sedjanane and the "Red Hill" area in the north. In a complicated attack Colonel Witzig, who commanded the German para-divers, drove to the town, captured it, and then moved on to the north.

Tunisian hills, it failed. But they had minor successes. The Allies lost their positions about the "Green Hill" pass and were forced down the valley almost to Djebel Abiod beyond Sedjanane.

The Germans occupied the lower part of the Sidi Nsir valley. Their tanks were badly mauled in the strange and bloody little action near Hunt's Gap—the following description of which

PREPARING THE ASSAULT ON THE MARETH LINE

The main attack on the Mareth Line began on the night of March 20-21, 1943, but it had been preceded by much preliminary work, both in field reconnaissance and in the study of this line of fortifications built by the French, strengthened by the Italians and the Germans, and linked with strong points in the Matmata Hills to the west. Here is an officer explaining with the aid of a map the dispositions and the plan of attack just prior to the opening of the battle.





EIGHTH ARMY'S ADVANCE INTO TUNISIA

While the mixed British, American, and French forces in north Tunisia were struggling towards Tunis against Von Arnim's armies (see Chapter 264), General Montgomery and the Eighth Army were driving Rommel's retreating Afrika Korps through Tripolitania and south Tunisia. This map illustrates the Eighth Army's advance after the fall of Tripoli to the battle of Wadi Akarit.

Specially drawn for THE SECOND GREAT WAR by Felix Gordon

is taken from the official report:

Sidi Nair lies in the hills 12 miles east of Hunt's Gap, near Beja. It was held by the 158th Field Battery R.A. and the Hampshire. Their orders were to gain time. On the evening of February 25 no signs were visible of any movement. But during the night Veroy light signals began to go up, and at 0.30 next morning heavy mortar fire opened on the British guns.

After 45 minutes' shelling, German tanks drove down the road from Matruh. Four 25-pounders kept into action, No. 1 firing over open sights. Three tanks were hit, and the road was blocked. Checked in their initial thrust, the enemy sent in lorried infantry who turned the battery's southern flank under cover of a hill. Eight Messerschmitts swooped down on the guns and raked each in turn and repeatedly with machine-gun and mortar fire.

By midday 50 German tanks, with self-propelled guns and infantry in support, were in the area. At 3.15 p.m. strong daylight attacks began, and the road was again blocked. The enemy then moved on to the left, and the battery was again checked.

The enemy then moved on to the left, and the battery was again checked. The enemy then moved on to the left, and the battery was again checked. The enemy then moved on to the left, and the battery was again checked.

out by No. 1 gun. The same gun set on fire another tank. Then the surviving tanks drew back and shelled and machine-gunned both "F" and "E" Troops, concentrating on one gun at a time. When all seemed finished, the Germans advanced again. But No. 1 gun of "F" Troop destroyed the leading tank. A moment later a direct hit killed all the survivors. Nos. 2, 3 and 4 fought on to the last man and the last round.

At 5.30 the Germans, heavily mauled, moved on to crush "E" Troop. At nightfall one 25-pounder and several Bren guns were still engaging German tanks smothering the last resistance.

When the battle began, there were nine Officers and 121 Other Ranks in the position. Nine survived, of whom two were wounded.

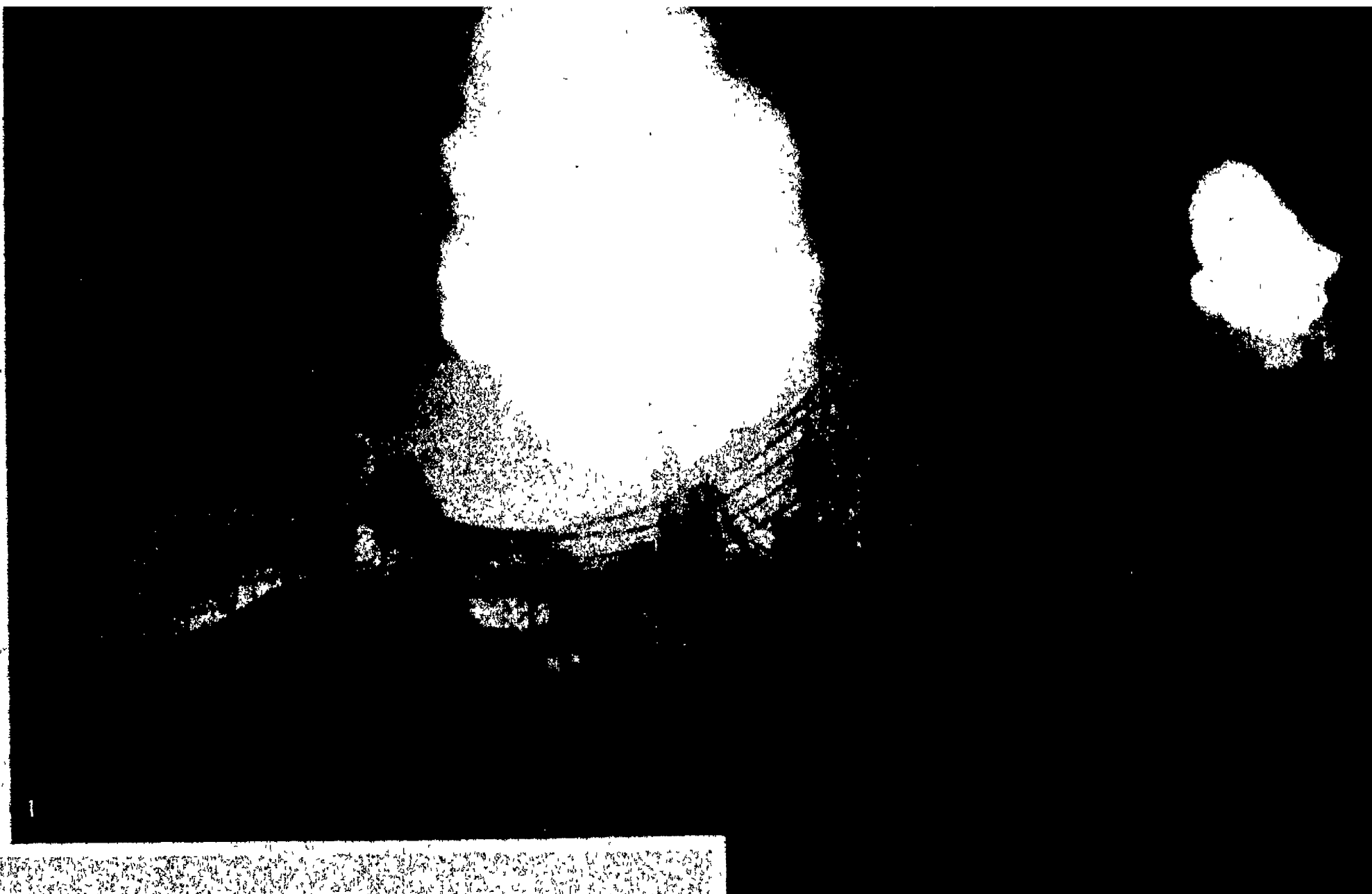
Thereafter, the enemy flooded over the hills of the Djebel el Ang and dominated the Beja road. In the Ben Arada sector their gains were less obvious. The area there they improved their positions. The men of the 158th Field Battery R.A. and the Hampshire were again checked.

The enemy then moved on to the left, and the battery was again checked. The enemy then moved on to the left, and the battery was again checked. The enemy then moved on to the left, and the battery was again checked.

claw of the great pincer movement to the east had broken off short with Rommel's retreat. The German High Command had two alternatives: to reinforce Von Arnim Half-hearted and Rommel in sufficient strength to enable the claw to re-extend itself; or to get out as many men as possible as early as possible. The German Command did neither of these things. It continued the policy of reinforcement on a scale which merely added to the numbers finally surrendered. Allied naval and air interference at sea played a part that perhaps is not generally recognized even now in this consummation. Once again the German incapacity to understand the implications of sea-power was to cost them a bitter price.

The Battle of Mareth is the most important single event in the history of the southern section of the campaign, for with Mareth broke any hope the Germans had of holding the wider bridgehead that the southern plan implied.

The history of the Battle of Mareth is a curious one. It was held in a remote area, and the German High Command was not aware of its importance.



BATTLE FOR THE MARETH LINE OPENS

The Mareth Line, supported on the west by the natural difficulties of the Matmata Hills and on the east by those of wadi-seamed country stretching to the coast, formed a strong defence zone in which Rommel made his last African stand. Montgomery's attack on the Line began with an intense night barrage (March 20-21, 1943) from heavy guns (1). But many ground obstructions, natural and artificial, had to be overcome: a working party (2) goes forward under shell-fire to plant dynamite in the banks of a wadi which formed an effective natural tank trap; the resulting explosion (3) levelled the wadi banks, and enabled Eighth Army armour to take up its zero hour positions.

Photos, British Official



the plain until it reached the slopes of the Matmata Hills, and in those hills it ended. It was assumed that the desert and the difficulties of the country would prevent an enemy from turning its western flank. After the Franco-Italian Armistice of June 1940, Italians took over the line, and with forethought and ingenuity they essayed to reverse its direction in so far as that was possible. Much of it could not be

reversed and some of it was demolished. Subsequently, in the German occupation, it was refurbished, and on the approach of Rommel's army a considerable amount of work was put into improving the old French fortifications. The strongest part of the artificial line ended about 10 miles from the sea. Between that and the coast the French had relied on the intolerable natural difficulties of the wadi-seamed country,

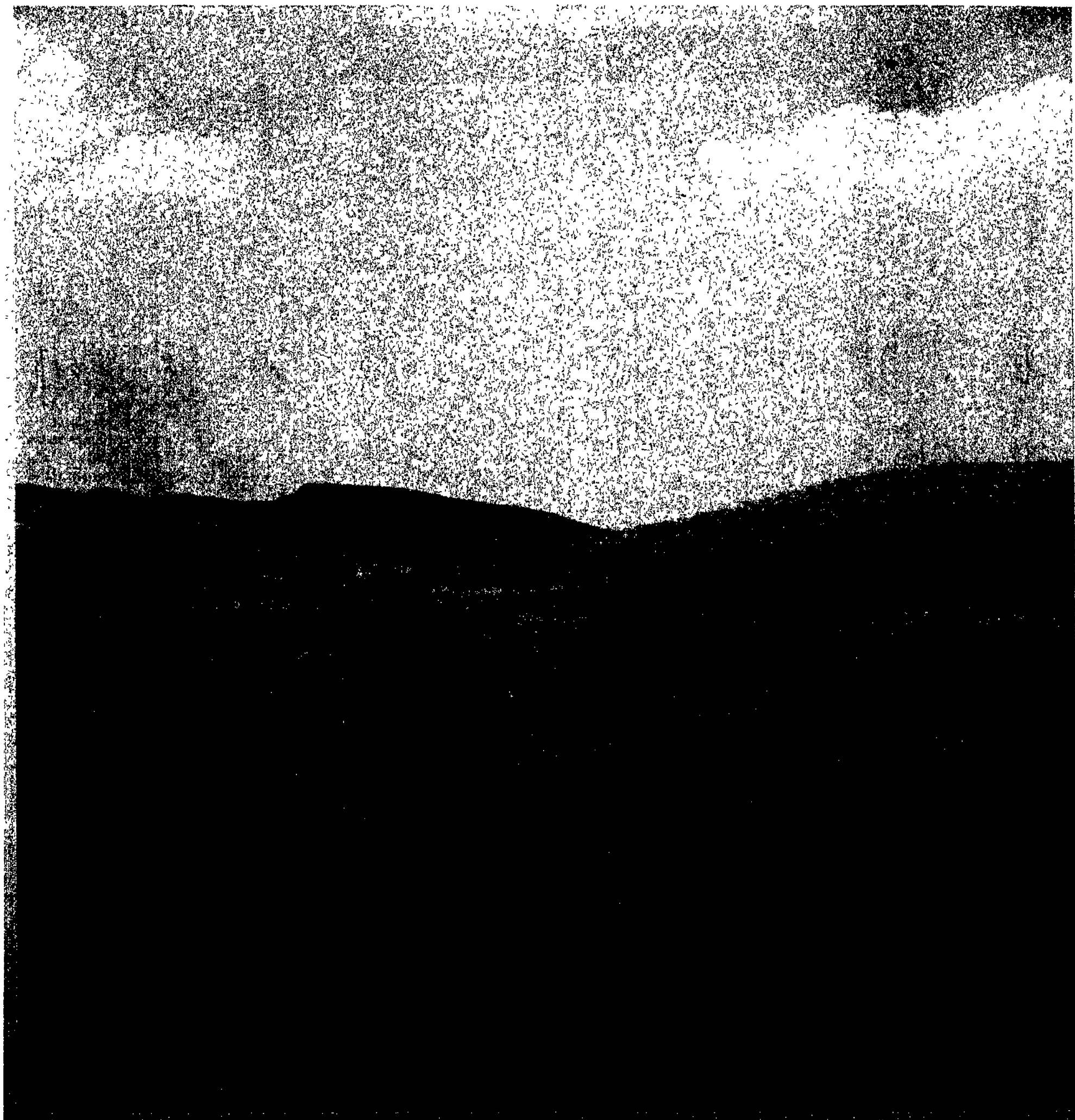
strengthened by occasional pillboxes, wire and minefields.

There was a pause after Medenine while General Montgomery built up his forces. That pause lasted until the middle of March, though there was intermittent fighting.

On the night of March 16, the 50th (Northumbrian) Division was given the task of breaching what by then had become perhaps the most formidable defensive position that the Eighth Army had ever faced. The line at the point selected ran on the northern bank of the Wadi Zigzau, a steep, mud-bottomed ravine, which offered incredible

AFTERMATH OF THE ACTION AT SIDI NSIR

One of seven German tanks knocked out by the 155th Field Battery, R.A., at Sidi Nsir (near Hunt's Gap, in northern Tunisia), on February 26, 1943. In this gallant and memorable action nine officers and 121 other ranks held their position against dive-bombing, mortar fire, and tanks until all their guns were destroyed. Only nine survivors (two wounded) got back to the British lines. Some others were taken prisoner. *Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright*

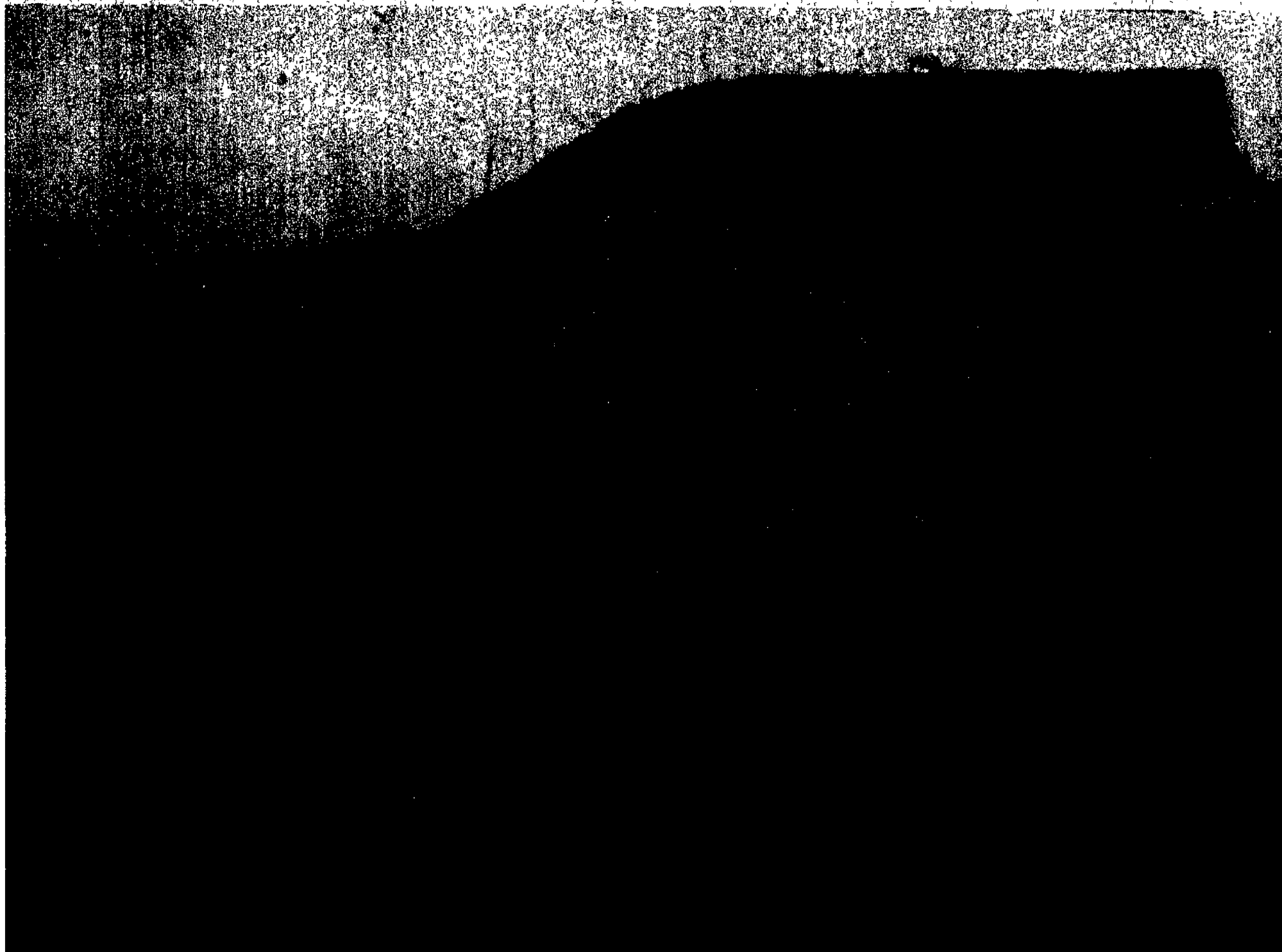






BARBED WIRE ENTANGLEMENTS ON THE MARETH LINE

Infantry section of the Eighth Army advancing through a wired position in the Mareth Line, the battle for which began on March 20, 1943. Both the town of Mareth and the Line were in Allied hands by March 28. General Montgomery's successful plan of action involved a direct attack on the Line itself, and a simultaneous left-flanking movement, led by Lt.-General Sir Bernard Freyberg, V.C., away to the west of the Matmata Hills, towards El Hamma. Below, observers spotting from a captured enemy post in the Mareth Line. *Photos, British Official*



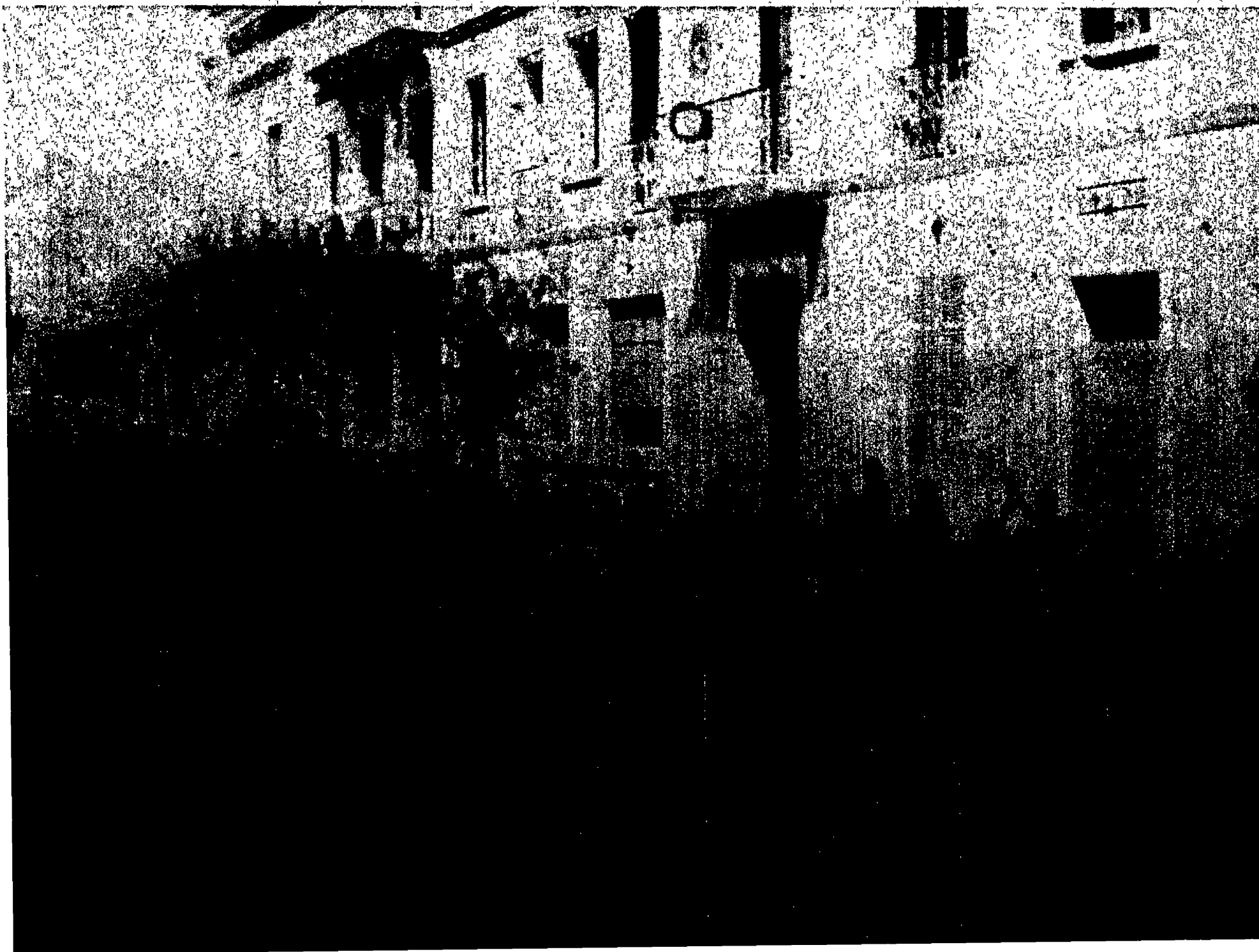


EIGHTH ARMY BREAKS THROUGH TO GABES AND BEYOND

The successful outflanking thrust west of the Matmata Hills executed by Freyberg's column forced Gen. Messe out of the Mareth Line, which was captured by the Eighth Army on March 28, 1943 (see map, page 2624). The Allies then pushed on to Gabes, which they occupied on March 29 after overcoming strong enemy rearguard opposition. New Zealand troops, some of whom are seen above in positions near the Gabes Gap, were the first to enter the town of Gabes. Below, a battalion of the Black Watch being piped through the town on its way to more heavy fighting in the Gabes Gap.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright

2 x





difficulties. In a preliminary series of attacks on the nights of March 16 and 17 the Green Howards and the East Yorkshire Regiment drove back the enemy from the outposts on the south side of the wadi. By the 18th our foremost troops were within a thousand yards of the ravine itself. By this time, though the Eighth Army did not know it, Rommel had left for Europe, a sick man, and the Italian General Messe was in command of Axis defence at Mareth. On the night of March 20-21 the main attack began. Again the Green Howards, led by small fighting patrols, formed the spearhead of the advance. Their commanding officer helped to place the first scaling-ladder in position and was first over the anti-tank ditch.

It was a major battle. Losses were heavy on both sides, but when the Durham Light Infantry came in in the main attack a foothold was established in the line. In a series of heroic assaults a bridgehead was secured on the farther side of the wadi, a roadway of fascines was built across the mud bottom and the beginning of a path for the armour was opened. But the line was strong. It was also deep, and Messe was hanging on to it with the energy of desperation. We pierced it; we crossed the formidable trough of the Zigzau, and we were held upon the farther side.

But the assault on the Wadi Zigzau was a part only of the Battle of Mareth; there was a wider movement. On a number of occasions in the North Africa campaign General Montgomery had exploited what came to be known as the "left hook."

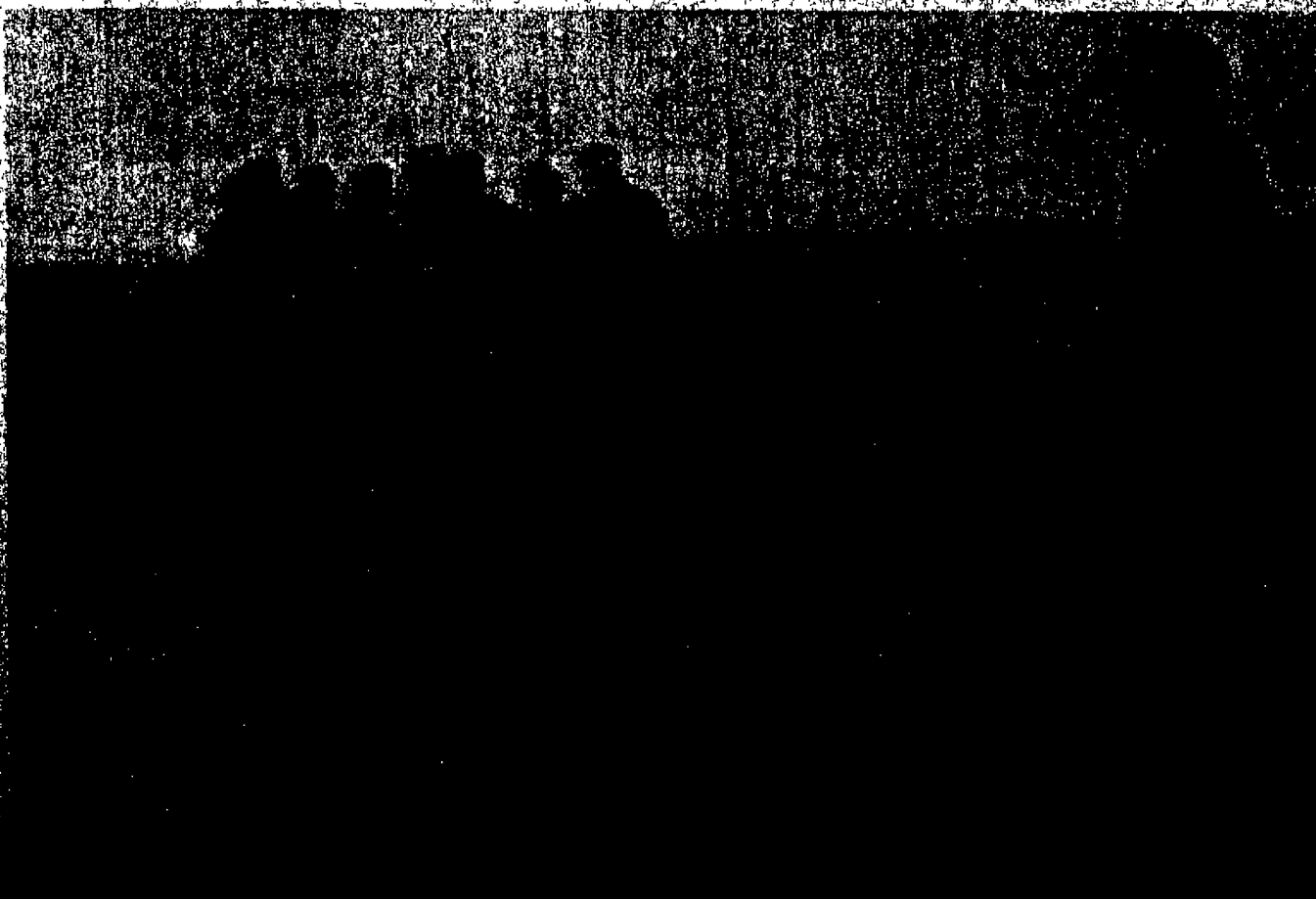
Attacking on or near the coast with his main force, he would swing a subsidiary force south and west of the position he was assaulting to take it in the rear. He had employed it as recently as Medenine. He exploited it again here. West of the Matmata Hills General Sir Bernard Freyberg, V.C., was leading a mixed and powerful column of British armour and New Zealand infantry, with a very strong artillery group under Brigadier Weir, plus General Leclerc's Fighting French column and men of the Royal Greek Army. The New Zealand corps began to concentrate on March 11; by March 18 it was complete. The force as a whole was self-contained and carried 11 days' food, water and ammunition and petrol for 350 miles. Heavy intelligence work of the concentration was on March 20, while the British tank force was still in the desert. It was then that the powerful New Zealand

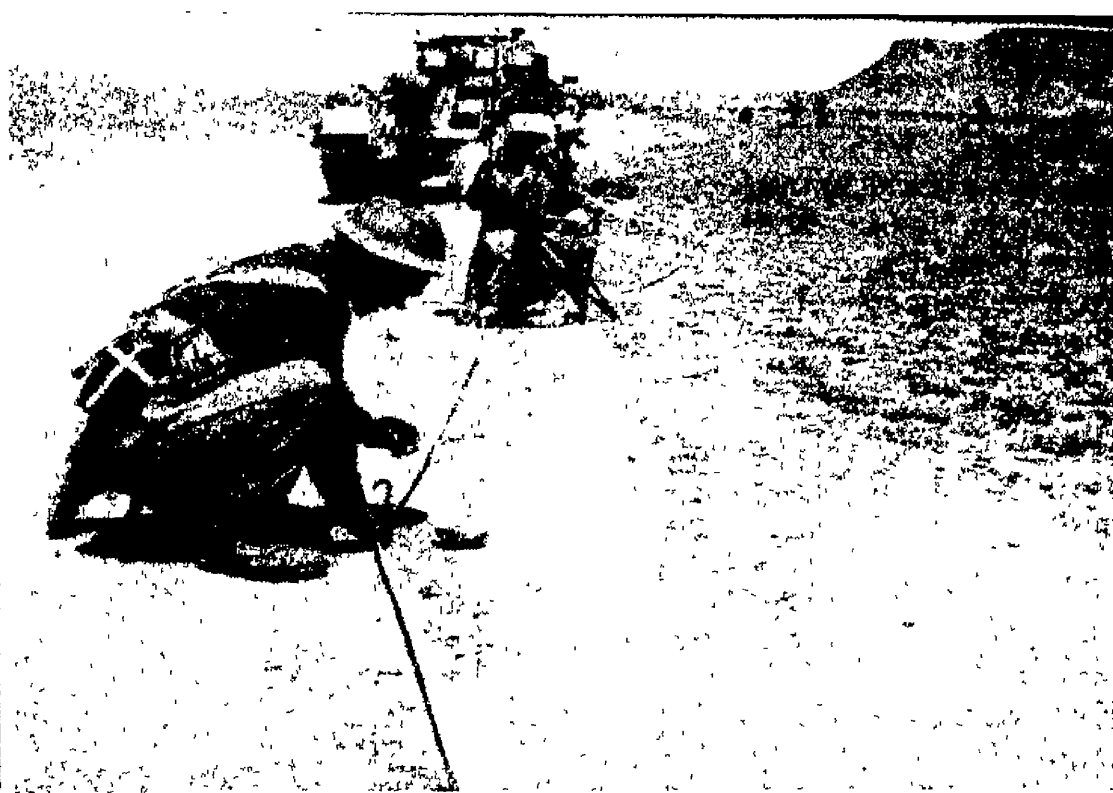


MONTGOMERY USES THE 'LEFT HOOK' AGAIN

General Montgomery used his 'left hook' strategy again in Tunisia when N.Z. troops with British armour, advancing rapidly to El Hamma along the western slopes of the Matmata Hills, forced the Axis armies under Messe to abandon the Mareth Line. Top, Eighth Army tanks and self-propelled guns moving up for the attack on El Hamma (March 29, 1943). Above, Allied vehicles passing through El Hamma. Below, General Montgomery congratulates his troops on the success of their outflanking movement.

Photos, British Official - Crown Copyright

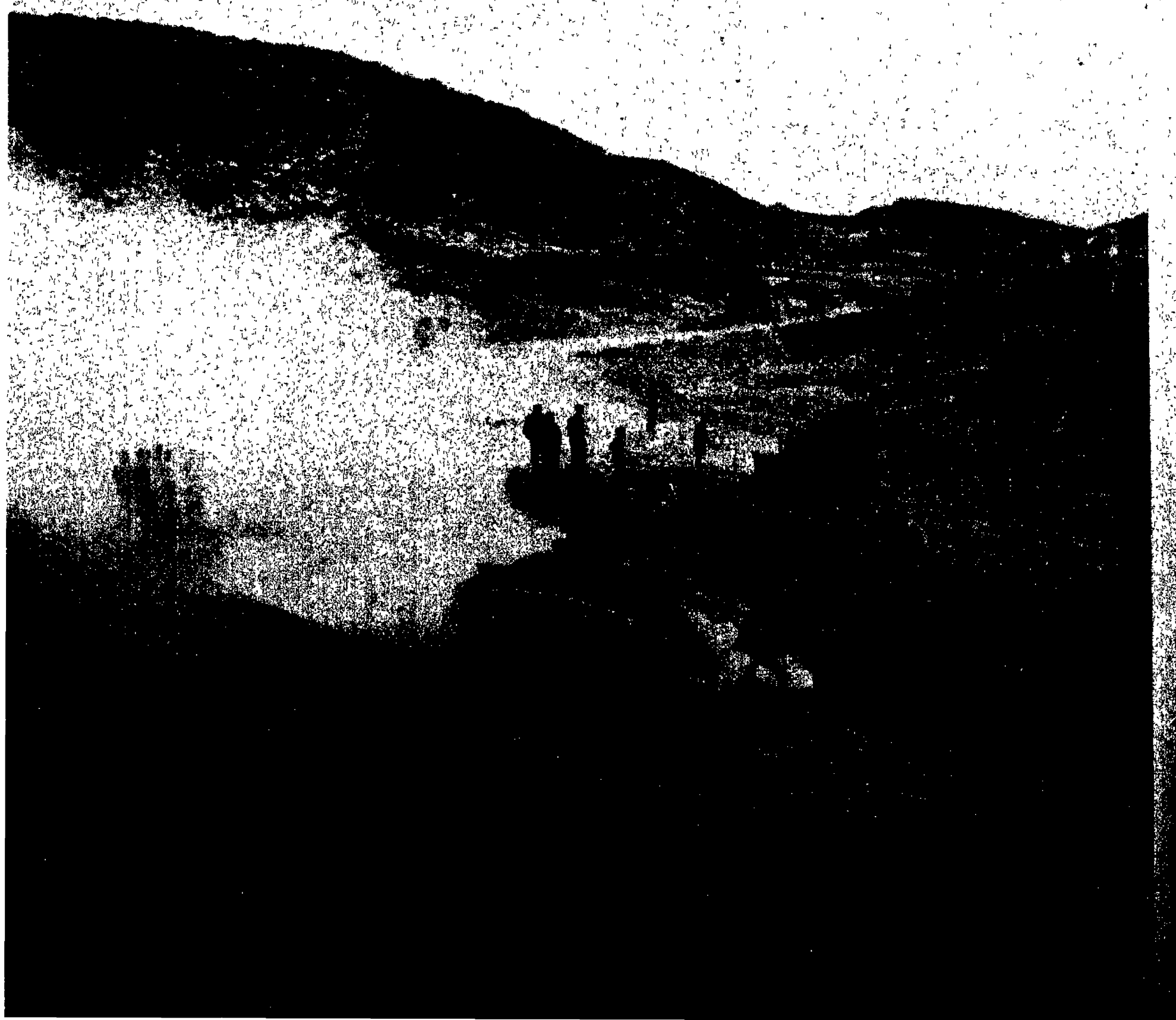




FORCING A WAY THROUGH THE GABES GAP

After capturing Gabes, the Eighth Army pursued the Axis forces through hastily constructed defences in the Gabes Gap to Oudref, which they captured on March 30, 1943. Left, Valentine tanks of the Eighth pushing their way through the Gabes Gap. Above, sappers marking off with signs and white tape the part of the road which has been cleared of mines. Below, a road blown up by the enemy under repair by R.E. sappers as Allied armour and supply trucks rumble past.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright



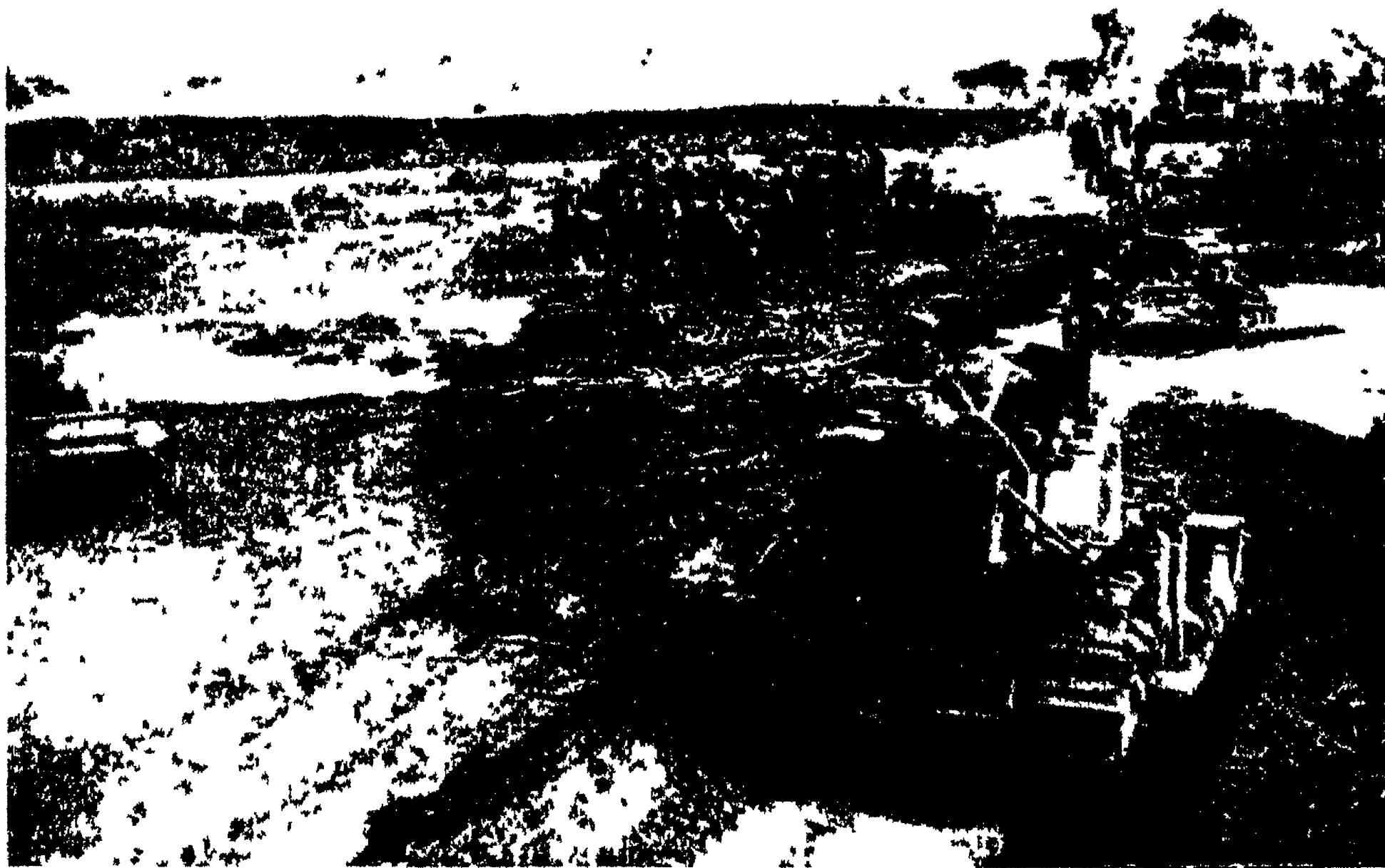


AMERICAN ARMOUR ENTERS MAKNASSY

On March 21, 1943, the American Fifth Army launched a three-pronged drive from Gafsa towards the coast. One column captured Sened on the 21st, Maknassy on the 22nd, and continued to advance in the direction of the sea. A second made for Gabes through El Guetar, while the third penetrated into the hilly country between. Above, a tank of the U.S. First Armoured Division rolls into Maknassy. Right, armoured car at Sened Station. Below, observation post in the hills above El Guetar.

Photos, Pictorial Press





BRIDGING THE WADI ZIGZAU BEFORE THE MARETH LINE

Among the natural features which helped to strengthen the position of the Mareth Line was the difficult, muddy-bottomed Wadi Zigzau. The Royal Engineers succeeded in making tracks across it with trees, sandbags, brushwood and fascines over these British infantry fought their way on March 21, 1943, in face of fierce enemy opposition. After 36 hours of bitter hand-to-hand fighting, more intense than anything in the Battle of Egypt, they had driven a bridgehead into the Line between Mareth and Zarai some 5,000 yards wide and 1,500 yards deep, and taken 2,000 prisoners.

Photo, British Official Crown Copyright

El Hamma, which stands at the end of the arm of the Chott Djerid and the beginning of the Gabes gap. The purpose of the flank attack was two-fold, its first object was to turn the Mareth flank and thereby to force the Axis to relinquish its grip on that bloody line; the second was to break through to the coast across the line of withdrawal from Mareth, cut off the retreating enemy and force him to battle or surrender in open country. Brilliantly led, moving with almost incredible speed, General Freyberg's column reached El Hamma in six days. The first object was superbly achieved. Messe was forced out of the Mareth Line.

This was a battle of many facets. One of the new features which played a very considerable part in the decision was the use of the light columns of the Eighth Army, which were used to break through the Mareth Line. The purpose of the attack was to turn the Mareth flank and thereby to force the Axis to relinquish its grip on that bloody line; the second was to break through to the coast across the line of withdrawal from Mareth, cut off the retreating enemy and force him to battle or surrender in open country.

important part, though perhaps not quite so important as the optimistic communiqués of the period suggested. The relay bombing which softened the Mareth Line, the incessant attacks on German concentrations, store dumps, transport and communication lines, all had their effect. The loss to the Axis powers—and particularly to the weaker part of the Axis—was heavy. From March 20 to March 28 over 6,000 prisoners—mainly Italians—were taken by the Eighth Army, together with a huge store of material.

But the second object was not achieved. For over a thousand miles from El Alamein, Rommel had cleverly exploited the advantages of a retreating army and contrived to extricate himself from disaster. Something he owed to the cynical use of his Italian allies as a delaying mechanism. He provided for the escape of his German troops by the capture of an Italian German tank and, consequently, he owed to the

good organization and discipline of the Afrika Korps. However that may be, the Axis forces had so far succeeded in escaping annihilation, and at Mareth they did so again. That is the sober fact of the great Battle of South Tunisia. Despite all that the air could do on the limited roads of his withdrawal, Messe's army surged northwards at tremendous speed, while in his rear forces of varying strength stood for a little to make good the necessary time. They did not stand at Gabes town—General Freyberg was knocking at its gates, nor did they stand in the Gabes gap—there was no time to make that exiguous position strong enough—but beyond Gabes was a long, dry gully down to the sea, the Wadi Akarit.

North and west of the Gabes area the Americans had attacked from Gafsa. That attack was in fact a second left hook. This also had a double object. Its first was, if possible, to threaten the coastal road in the rear of the southern battle, but, if the mountain positions proved too strong, it could still serve a valuable purpose by diverting troops from the southern battle to reinforce the mountain garrisons.

The attack was delayed a little on it by rain. Rain had been expected in the first phase of the Tunisian campaign but it was rain in the desert the worst in the area had known for six years a single day of torrential down-pour. None the less, the thrust went forward. The Americans supported by French detachments recaptured Gafsa then raced through the gap and cleared the hills immediately beyond the town above the village of El Guetar. There the force divided and one column swept along the old road of the Station Road thrust to Maknassy and the other pounded at the main Gafsa-Gabes highway. They were held. The Allies discovered then that the Germans had long planned their resistance in this area. At the strategic points were strong and well-sited concrete pillboxes. The fighting was galling in the extreme and the losses heavy, but progress, once the Americans had broken past El Guetar, was slow and painful. Nevertheless, it drew powerful tank forces from the desperately pressed Axis army of the south, and was a notable contribution to the general battle.

General Montgomery paused for a little to reorganize in the Gabes area. On April 6 the Eighth Army attacked

Capture of the Wadi Akarit. So powerful was Messe's rearguard here that it was thought by many

that the main Axis army had been brought to a stand again. But Wadi Akarit was essentially a delaying action which utilized a powerful natural position. The wadi itself, steep, difficult to cross and easy to defend, runs down to the sea. It was strengthened by two hills, Djebel Tihaga Fatnassa on the left and Djebel Er Rumana on the right, north of the actual wadi.

The attack opened in the small hours with a massed barrage of 500 guns—that method of softening which had been so brilliantly developed in the desert. At 4 a.m. the infantry went in. In a magnificent assault the 51st (Highland) Division carried the two 500-foot hills, the Cameron and the Seaforth Highlanders going in with the bayonet under the very skirts of the barrage. Within an hour of the firing of the last shell the heights had surrendered, and through the defile between the hills the armour smashed out on to the open plain. The enemy realized that our hold on the hills was only light, and they put in heavy counter-attacks. At one time the Seaforth Highlanders could muster only 40 fighting men but, calling on clerks, kitchen staff and orderlies so many Bren guns, they held

on until the Black Watch came in to the rescue.

And as that Axis counter-attack failed the fate of the vast coastal plain of Tunisia was sealed. Between the Wadi Akarit and the mountains of Zakhoun there was no holding ground for an army. Six weeks with its port, El Djem, Souk Kroum (the Holy

City of Africa) with a thousand villages and a score of lesser towns up to Enfidaville were virtually surrendered in that hour. South Tunisia was lost to the enemy in two sharp battles, and with it were lost 17,500 prisoners almost as many killed and wounded, and a vast quantity of tanks, guns, stores and munitions of war.



ATTACK BY THE EIGHTH ARMY ON THE WADI AKARIT

General Montgomery's attack on the enemy line at Wadi Akarit opened at dawn on April 6, 1943, under cover of a violent barrage by 500 guns. A breach was made in the centre of the Axis front through which strong British tank and mobile forces advanced, taking 6,000 prisoners and over-running the whole of the wadi. The Fourth Indian Division, on the extreme left flank, fought with particular gallantry, climbing a high massif in the dark and wiping out the German garrison without a shot being fired. Above, guns and lorned infantry move forward to attack. Below, observing results of New Zealand gunners' fire on enemy positions, in support of the Fourth Indian Division.

Photos Indian Official



TEHERAN & CAIRO: FAR EASTERN PROBLEMS

The first personal meeting between Stalin, Roosevelt and Churchill at Teheran in November 1943 decided the strategy of the European war for 1944; while the conference held in the same month in Cairo between Chiang Kai-shek, Roosevelt and Churchill was conclusive evidence of the importance attached to the war against Japan by Great Britain and U.S.A. India's contribution to the campaigns in the Mediterranean, her difficulties, and her post-war prospects were the themes of Lord Wavell's first public speech as Viceroy.

DECLARATION OF TEHERAN, SIGNED BY ROOSEVELT, STALIN AND CHURCHILL ON DECEMBER 1, 1943.

WE, the President of the United States of America, the Prime Minister of Great Britain, and the Premier of the Soviet Union, have met these four days past in the capital of our ally Iran, and have shaped and confirmed our common policy. We expressed our determination that our nations shall work together in war and in the peace that will follow.

As to war, our military staffs have joined in our round-table discussions and we have concerted our plans for the destruction of the German forces. We have reached complete agreement as to the scope and timing of the operations which will be undertaken from the East, West and South. The common understanding which we have here reached guarantees that victory will be ours.

And as to peace, we are sure that our concord will make it an enduring peace. We recognize fully the supreme responsibility resting upon us and all the United Nations to make a peace that will command the good will of the overwhelming masses of the peoples of the world and banish the scourge and terror of war for many generations.

With our diplomatic advisers we have surveyed the problems of the future. We shall seek the co-operation and the active participation of all nations, large and small, whose people in heart and mind are dedicated, as are our own peoples, to the elimination of tyranny and slavery, oppression and intolerance. We will welcome them as they may choose to come into a world family of democratic nations.

No power on earth can prevent our destroying the German armies by land, their U-boats by sea, and their war plants from the air. Our attacks will be relentless and increasing.

From these friendly conferences we look with confidence to the day when all peoples of the world may live free lives, untouched by tyranny and according to their varying desires and their own consciences.

We came here with hope and determination. We leave here friends in fact, in spirit, and in purpose.

OFFICIAL ANNOUNCEMENT ON ANGLO-SINO-AMERICAN COLLABORATION ISSUED IN CAIRO, DECEMBER 1, 1943.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, and the Prime Minister, Mr. Churchill, together with their respective military and diplomatic advisers, have completed a conference in North Africa. The following general statement has been issued:

The several military missions have agreed upon future military operations against Japan.

The three great Allies expressed their resolve to bring unrelenting pressure against their brutal enemies by sea, land, and air. This pressure is already rising.

The three great Allies are fighting this war to restrain and punish the aggression of Japan. They covet no gain for themselves and have no thought of territorial expansion.

It is their purpose that Japan shall be stripped of all the islands in the Pacific which she has seized or occupied since the beginning of the first world war in 1914, and that all the territories that Japan has stolen from the Chinese, such as Manchuria, Formosa, and the Pescadores, shall be restored to the Republic of China.

Japan will also be expelled from all other territories which she has taken by violence and greed.

The aforesaid three Great Powers, mindful of the enslavement of the people of Korea, are determined that in due course Korea shall become a free and independent State.

They also have determined that the three Great Powers, in harmony with the United Nations, will continue to pressure the enemy that has been the aggressor in the Pacific, and to bring about the complete and final defeat of Japan.

LORD WAVEILL SPEAKS TO THE ASSOCIATED CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE IN CALCUTTA ON INDIA'S WAR EFFORT AND POST-WAR PLANS. DECEMBER 20, 1943.

I SHOULD like to begin my first public speech as Viceroy by acknowledging again the services rendered to me in the Middle East during the early part of the war, not only by Indian troops but by Indian industry, which supplied so many of our pressing needs. . . . Indian help saved the Middle East at a critical time. . . .

We have every reason for sober confidence in a victorious outcome of the war in Europe in the not too distant future. . . . But the end of the war in the West is no more than the beginning of the war in the East on a scale required to bring about the defeat and unconditional surrender of Japan. . . . The war effort and preparations we have already made have placed severe strains upon our national economy and we must take steps to make this stable to support the strains of the next year.

The food problem must be our first concern. . . . The first thing to get clear about food is that it is not a provincial problem; it is an all-India, and even a world problem. . . . If by administrative negligence we are compelled to ask for more help from abroad than we really need, we are expecting other countries, whose people are already rationed, and whose prices are properly controlled, to deny themselves unnecessarily. . . . It is our plain duty to set up an efficient food administration. . . . Key points in our plan are full rationing in the larger towns and control of prices. . . . It is said by some that urban rationing is unnecessary and impossible in India. This is nonsense. It is very necessary and quite possible. . . .

In Bengal, the aid given by the Army coupled with the prospects of a bountiful *aman* harvest have eased the position perceptibly. But there are no grounds for complacency. We still have to fight lack of confidence and greed, and to see that administrative action is adequate for the future. The Army cannot remain indefinitely to do the work of the civil administration. Bengal has the sympathy of the world at present, but this will not continue unless it is obvious that she is making every effort to help herself. . . .

The years after the war are going to be of immense import to India's future. . . . The Government has in hand the preparation of plans to take advantage of India's opportunities in as great a measure as possible. In this the Government and industry must work very closely hand in hand. . . . Development must be on an Indian basis and by Indian methods. But India will require assistance and advice at first to help her to realize the great possibilities that are hers. . . .

It seems to me that one of the first necessities is to develop power schemes throughout India to provide the driving force for industries. In some instances it may be possible to combine this with irrigation schemes for agriculture, the improvement of which by all possible means must be our principal aim. . . . The development of industry and the improvement of agriculture must go hand in hand in order to provide for India's growing population and to raise the standard of living. . . .

I have said nothing of the constitutional or political problems of India, not because they are not constantly in my mind. . . . but because I do not believe that I can make their solution any easier by talking about them just at present. For the time being I concentrate on the job of work we have to do. The winning of the war, the organization of the economic home front, and the preparations for peace. . . . If we can co-operate now in the achievement of the great administrative aims which should be common to all parties when the country is in peril, we shall do much to reduce the difficulties in which the solution of the political problems will be possible. . . .

THE MENACE OF WAR RECEDES FROM THE MIDDLE EAST

The record of affairs in the Middle East, continued here by Mr. Kenneth Williams from Chapter 246, remained on the whole a troubled one throughout 1943. There was, however, a marked tendency for opinion to veer towards the Allied cause. The holding in Egypt and Persia of conferences between the leaders of the major Allied states together with the diplomatic activity with Turkey threw Middle Eastern affairs into special prominence that year

DURING the year 1943 the menace of war, though not its consequences, appeared to the Middle East to grow increasingly remote. The result was that, convinced that Germany could not win the war, most of the lands in this region manoeuvred, to a varying extent, to take what advantages were possible from being on the winning side and to safeguard their post-war position. The chief concern of the Arabic-speaking countries related to the possibility of achieving Arab unity; that of Turkey, to how she could best conserve her neutrality and secure her position when peace came; and that of Persia, to mitigating the effects on her economy of the requirements of two of the belligerents, Britain and Russia.

The attitude of Egypt, where were the offices of the Minister of State (Mr. R. G. Casey) responsible for co-ordinating the economic output of all the Middle

Eastern territories, was extremely important.

EGYPT Under the guidance of Nahas Pasha, the Prime Minister and leader of the Wafdist party, Egyptians did not waver in their collaborative effort. But it must be confessed that, as the Axis armies were being surely pushed out of Africa, Egyptian interest in the war tended to become academic. With the fall of Tripoli, Egyptians felt that the threat of war to the Nile Valley was definitely removed, and that it was therefore safe to ventilate domestic problems. Here, a feature of the situation was the tension existing between the Government and the Palace.

This tension must have been one of the constant preoccupations of the British Ambassador, Sir Miles Lampson, who, raised to the peerage, took the title of Lord Killearn. It speaks much for his tact and experience that nothing untoward occurred during the year, and this despite the attacks made by the Opposition, who attempted to gain the ear of the King on the ground that the British were interfering in the internal affairs of Egypt.

Widespread excitement was caused by the publication of the "Black Book," written by a former Minister of

Finance, Makram Ebeid Pasha. This contained charges of corruption and nepotism against the Prime Minister, and thousands of copies were circulated. In April the Opposition tried to make capital out of the accusations, and petitioned the King to dismiss the Government. For a time this affair excluded all other interests. But Nahas Pasha professed himself ready to go to the country on this issue. Such a course, however, did not prove necessary. He met the charges in Parliament, where he demanded a vote of confidence. This, after full debate, he obtained unanimously, all but two of the Opposition withdrawing after it had been decided not to allow Makram Pasha more than three days of the Chamber's time in which to elaborate his charges. It was after this vote that the King withdrew the reservations he seems to have cherished about his Government's project of establishing diplomatic relations with Soviet Russia.

The normal prorogation of Parliament for the summer did not end political interest, which was renewed by talks on Arab unity, begun as a result of

initial conversations between the Prime Minister of Iraq, Nuri Pasha, and the Egyptian Prime Minister from July 31 to August 6. Into this project Nahas Pasha threw himself with some enthusiasm, inviting all the Arab States to send separately delegates to Egypt to discuss ways and means with him. Such representatives did arrive, and within a few months Nahas Pasha was possessed of the views of the Lebanon, Syria, Transjordan, Iraq, Saudi Arabia, and the Yemen. Palestine alone did not send a recognized delegate, the explanation being that all her real leaders were interned. These discussions continued for several months, but by the end of the year nothing concrete had been published. It became evident that though all the Arab States paid homage to the ideal of unity, there was considerable difference of view as to methods of attaining federation.

Facilities for Allied (particularly American) air traffic through the Cairo area were increased sixfold by the opening in October 1943 of a great new airfield constructed in its essentials in 58 days from August 3. It included

EMERGENCY SHIPBUILDING IN EGYPT

Local labour was used at Alexandria to construct from imported materials this special type of small naval lighter needed for transport in the area. Made entirely of wood and canvas, these lighters were capable of carrying up to 200 tons of cargo.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright



some 70 buildings and 6,500 feet of runway. The Heliopolis airfield on which the Allies had previously been dependent was small. Working to its maximum capacity by day it could not be used at night on account of dangerous obstructions and the immense increase in military air traffic made the construction of the new airfield essential.

But 1943 was not to end without giving Egyptians other matters for discussion. On December 1 it was



CONFERENCE IN CAIRO

Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek for the first time came into personal contact with the leaders of Great Britain and the U.S.A. at the conference on Allied strategy against Japan, held in Cairo from November 22-26, 1943. 1 The Generalissimo with Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Churchill at Mesa House. 2 R.A.F. radio observation post on the Great Pyramid, part of the conference security precautions. 3 Chiang Kai-shek and his wife, accompanied by Sir Robert Greg, K.C.M.G., leaving the Ibn Tulun Mosque during a brief tour they made of the city of Cairo.



announced in Cairo that President Roosevelt, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek and Mr. Churchill, with military and diplomatic advisers, had completed a conference in Cairo on Middle Eastern and Far Eastern Affairs. Generally, the conference was held in Cairo on November 22-26, 1943. The conference was held in Cairo on November 22-26, 1943. The conference was held in Cairo on November 22-26, 1943.

Far East so as to make Japan disgorge not only all the territories she had seized since the attack on Pearl Harbor but also the lands she had occupied or absorbed during the past 20 years. The conference was held in Cairo on November 22-26, 1943. The conference was held in Cairo on November 22-26, 1943.

of Turkey's entering the war against Germany (See Hist. Doct. CCLXVII, p. 2636). Speculation in the latter direction was provided by another conference in Cairo on Dec. 4, 5 and 6. This was between President Roosevelt, Mr. Churchill and President Inönü of Turkey. These talks, the result of an invitation

to the Turkish President by the U.S.A. British and Soviet Governments were a sequel to a previous meeting in Cairo between Mr Eden and the Turkish Foreign Minister M. Mericmenogou. At the end this communication stated:

It is the result of the meeting of the Prime Minister Churchill and the President of the Republic of Turkey, Mr. Inonu, in the light of the present situation and the common interests of the two countries. The study of the problems in a spirit of understanding and sympathy showed that the closest unity existed between the United States of America, Turkey, and Great Britain in their attitude to the world situation. The conversations in Cairo have frequently been most useful and most fruitful for the future of the relations between the four countries concerned. The identity of interest and of views of the great American and British democracies with those of the Soviet Union is also the foundation of friendship existing between them. Power and Turkey have been reaffirmed throughout the proceedings of the Cairo Conference.

This was interpreted by many to mean that Turkey meant to join the United Nations, but she was still not in the war by the end of

TURKEY the year. There was little indeed in the previous 12 months to suggest that she would depart from her neutrality though more than one attempt was made to induce the Turks more actively to realize their alliance with Britain. On January 10 a Turkish Production Mission arrived in London, but far more important, politically, was the visit which Mr Churchill, on the recommendation of President Roosevelt, paid to the Turkish President and Prime Minister in Adana on January 30 and 31. Mr Churchill went to Turkey at his own request after the Casablanca

Conference and the ostensible object of his journey was to reinforce Turkey's defenses. The Turkish statement was more than merely grateful and the British Prime Minister had a great personal success. But no enthusiasm was followed by a more circumspect attitude.

Speaking on February 20 Mr. Churchill reaffirmed Turkey's resolve to maintain neutrality and her wish to continue in close and amicable relations with Germany, the U.S.A. and Russia while

friendship with and trust of Britain and the U.S.A. were indestructible. Four days later the President said that Turkey would do everything not to get involved in war. It was very clear that neither certain influential Turks nor the ordinary man in the street were ready to participate. Turkish reservations about becoming belligerent were not modified even by the final eclipse of the Axis in North Africa. By the middle of the year it appeared that the

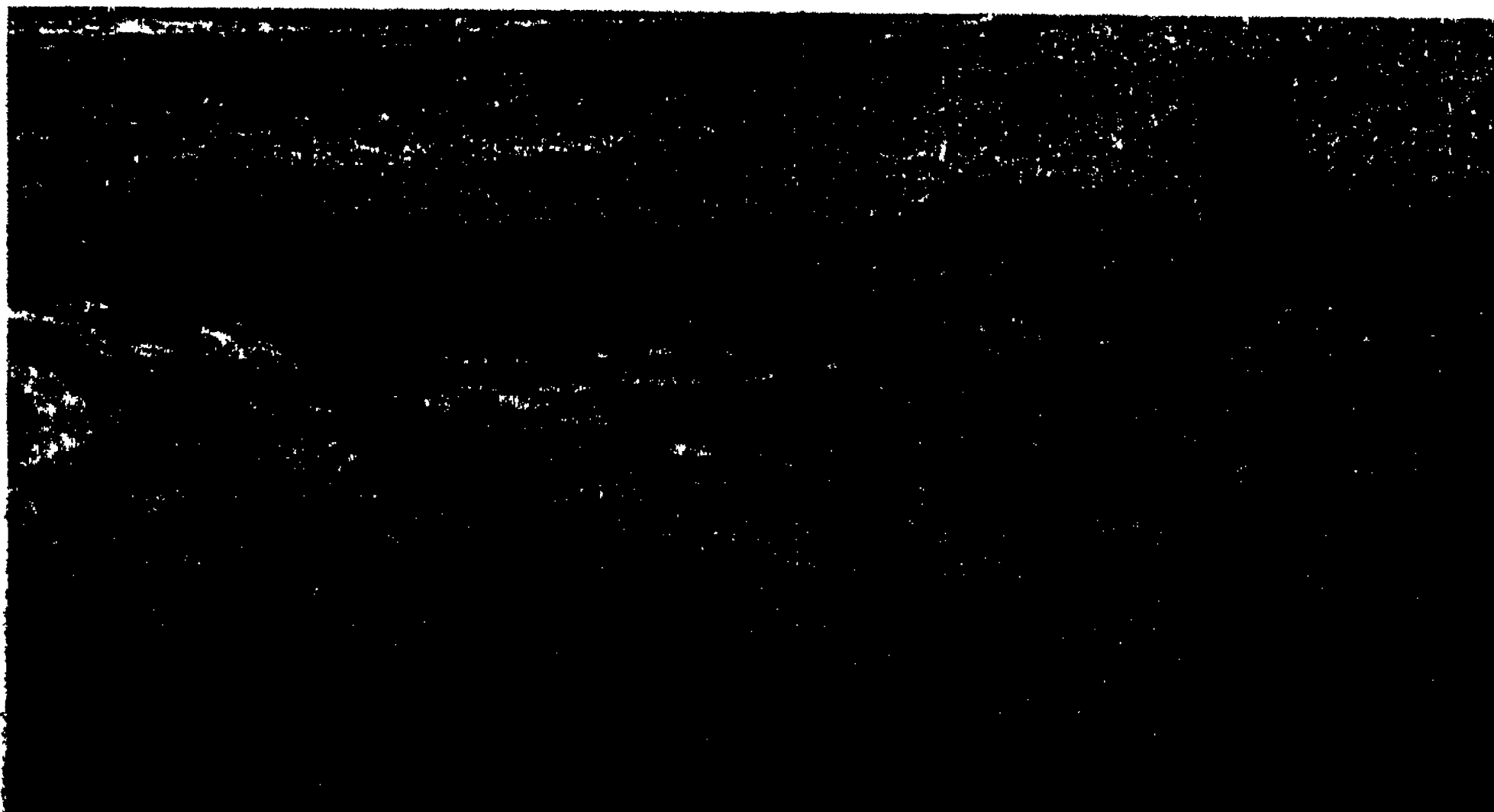


BRITISH GUEST OF THE TURKISH GOVERNMENT

Following the conference at Casablanca in January 1943, Mr Churchill flew to Turkey at the invitation of President Inonu, who received him at Adana. Host and guest are here seen in conference. The provision of more materials and equipment for the reinforcement of Turkey's defences was the chief subject discussed. Below, a convoy of jeeps and other war vehicles passes an old monastery on the journey from Egypt to Turkey via Syria.

Photos, British Official Crown Copyright

2x3





TRANSJORDAN FRONTIER FORCE CAVALRY

One of the last horse regiments in the British Army, the Transjordan Frontier Force Cavalry Regiment, included Arabs, Circassians, Druses, Armenians and Jews, and was led partly by cavalry officers seconded from British Regiments, and partly by local officers. Mounted in the main on Arab horses, it was furnished with modern arms and equipment. Its chief duty was to patrol the Turco-Syrian border to prevent smuggling and the illegal passage of persons.

Here a squadron is encamped at Hambouchi on the Utkia.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

most powerful consideration in Turkish counsels was that, when the time came for a peace settlement, the strength of the Turkish Army should be at its peak.

For a time, indeed, the Turks seemed more than ever determined to adhere strictly to neutrality. Nationalist tendencies hardened, and the "Tax on Wealth"

Neutrality was persisted in in face of Allied representations that it discriminated unfairly against foreign minorities. Over Russian criticism that Turkey was not playing the part of a real ally of Britain, the Turks showed resentment, and the policy of neutrality remained unchanged after the capitulation of Italy.

By the autumn the enthusiasm for Britain engendered by Mr. Churchill's visit had largely cooled, and an attempt had to be made to rekindle it. Mr. Eden, on his way back from Moscow, conferred in Cairo on November 10 and 11 with the Turkish Foreign Minister (previously the head of the Ministry of Education), and it was ascertained that there had been no change of heart on the part of the Turkish Government and that its policy

tions were "conducted in the spirit of friendship and alliance which binds the two countries."

The cautious policy adopted by the Turkish Foreign Minister, together with that of the President in subsequent talks (referred to in page 2638) with President Roosevelt and Mr. Churchill, was confirmed by the People's Party. The Turks, it seemed, were "not biting"—and it was particularly unfortunate that, as if to strengthen and confirm their fears of German might and vengeance, Laros should be lost about this time and Samos have to be evacuated.

In Palestine the High Commissioner (Sir H. A. MacMichael) had made a broadcast appeal, on New Year's Eve, for moderation and good will; but its effect was only partial. For while the Arabs of Palestine were content largely to leave the defence of their local cause in the hands of Arabs outside Palestine (their own leaders having been mostly deported), the Zionists showed intense activity, using the British and, to some extent, a number of local Jewish units, to maintain a pressure on the Turkish Government.

of an Allied victory, were now mainly engaged in helping as many Jews as possible to escape to Palestine from Nazi-dominated lands; yet, among the more moderate elements, the existence of "Hagana"—an illegal force of Jews trained on commando-like lines—created misgivings.

The activities of Zionists, both within and without Palestine, caused much perturbation among Arabs, also within and without Palestine;

but opposition to the **PALESTINE** British Government

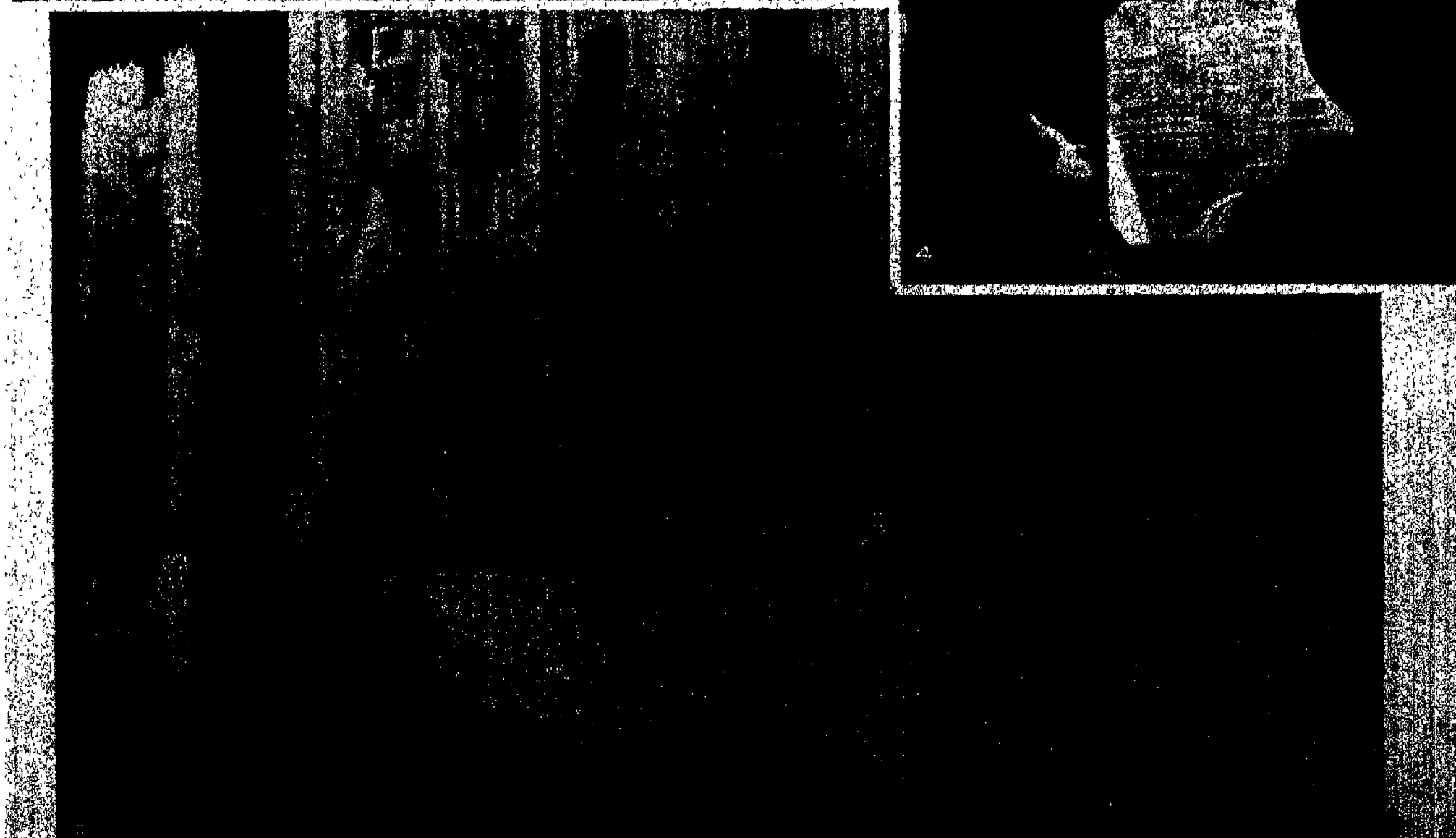
came from Zionist extremists, who would be content with nothing less than the conversion of the whole of Palestine into a Jewish State. Reacting to a Government communiqué on March 23, which contained proposals for post-war development and reconstruction, they urged non-co-operation. More than that, they were suspected of large-scale thefts of arms and ammunition from British military establishments. They desired, moreover, to do their own recruiting of Jewish volunteers for service with the Allies, and when the Government tried to stop intimidation they showed the greatest resentment. For a few months, indeed, the Zionists closed their recruiting offices.

Matters reached a climax over the trial of a Jew on August 11, when two British soldiers were sentenced to 15 years' imprisonment each for



TROUBLE IN THE LEBANON

Disturbances in the Lebanon, described in page 2644, provided one of the major crises of the Middle East during 1943. 1. General Catroux, representative of the French Committee of National Liberation, arrives at Beirut. 2. Mr. R. G. Casey, British Minister of State in the Middle East, with Maj.-Gen. Sir Edward Spears, British Minister to Syria, at Beirut. 3. Bechara el Khoury, President of the Lebanon Republic, released by the French authorities, inspects a guard of honour at the opening of the Chekka-Beirut road, built by R.E.s in a hundred days. With him is Lt.-Gen. W. G. Holmes, G.O.C 9th Army. 4. Two riflemen reading a copy of 'Ninth Army News,' printed by the Beirut 'Eastern Times' during the crisis. 5. French patrol in a Beirut street.





WITH THE TENTH ARMY IN PERSIA

At the Tough Tactics School at Kermanshah, trainees go through a mountain climbing exercise as part of their course, which included organized games, leadership training, unarmed combat, mountain climbing and long distance running and walking. Below, Lt-General Sir Henry Pownall, K.B.E., C.B., D.S.O., M.C. (centre) arrives to take up his appointment as C.-in-C. Persia-Iraq Command (Tenth Army), announced in March 1943. *Photos, British Official*



signed from the Jewish Agency Executive, owing—it was said—to differences with Dr. Weizmann, head of the Zionist Movement. Dr. Weizmann was credited with favouring partition in Palestine, whereas Mr. Ben Gurion was reputed to want the whole of Palestine as a Jewish State. Tension between the ultra-political Zionists and the Government was maintained until the close of the year, and when, on November 16, the police searched a Jewish settlement in the Vale of Sharon for Polish deserters and illegal arms, there were serious incidents at Tel Aviv.

Of all the Middle East States in 1943, Transjordan was easily the most tranquil. The Emir Abdullah and his statesmen were keenly interested in the dis-

TRANS-JORDAN

cussions on Arab unity, and at one time hoped to have a conference on the project in Amman, their capital. But in September the Emir sent his Prime Minister to Egypt to discuss the issue with the Egyptian Prime Minister, and it is believed that the chief topics investigated were the project of having Syria, the Lebanon, Transjordan and Palestine under a single monarchy, and the possibility of closer union between Egypt and Transjordan.

By contrast, Syria and the Lebanon had a year ending in tumultuous excitement, not only because they were very vocal in expressing their views on Arab unity, but also because, owing to mishandling by the French, events occurred which gave to that feeling of solidarity a new force and significance.

On March 18 General Catroux proclaimed the restoration of the free Constitution of the Lebanon, and a decree was promulgated providing for a general election to be held within three months. Dr. Ayoub Tabet was appointed head of the Lebanese State, and the French hoped that Hashim Atassi would become President of Syria.

In June M. Hellen succeeded General Catroux as French Delegate General in the Levant, and stated that he was resolved to help preserve the independence of the

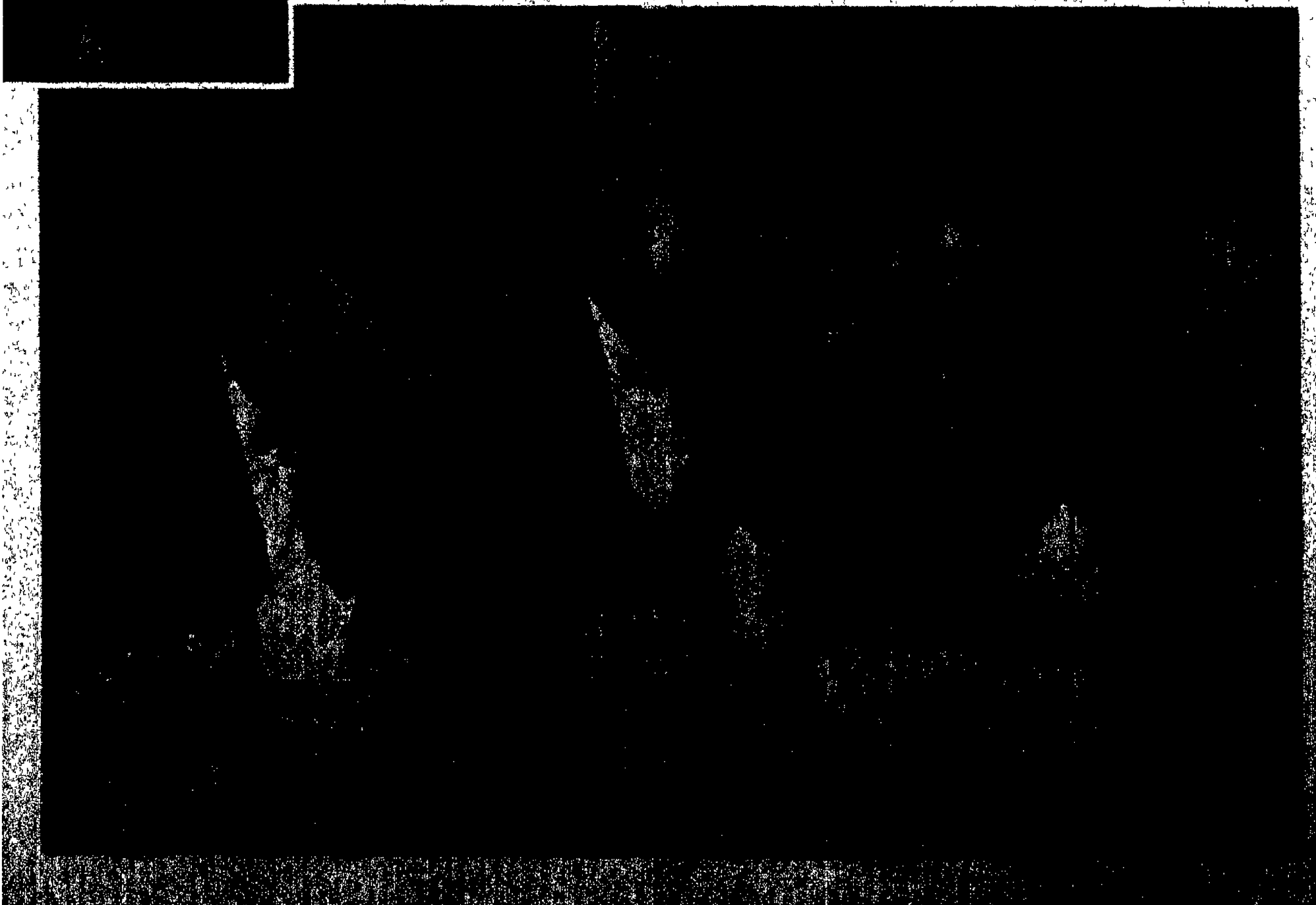
SYRIA

peoples of Syria "within the framework of friendship with France." But the French, apparently, were not certain of that friendship. The elections were postponed. This procrastination was of considerable embarrassment to the French, and responsible for the military intervention in Syria. When an ultimatum was sent to the French, they were forced to withdraw their troops from Syria, and the French presence in Syria was ended.



MARSHAL STALIN RECEIVES THE STALINGRAD SWORD

'To mark the profound admiration felt by myself and the peoples of the British Empire, I have given commands for the preparation of a Sword of Honour, which it will give me great pleasure to present to the city of Stalingrad,' said H.M. The King in a message to President Kalinin on February 21, 1943. Mr. Churchill took the sword (left) with him to the Teheran Conference in December, and presented it in person to Marshal Stalin, here seen kissing the scabbard. Below, President Roosevelt and Marshal Stalin with Mr. Churchill at the dinner given at the British Legation at Teheran for the Premier's 69th birthday on November 30, 1943. Photos, British Official; "The Times"





ALLIED HELP FOR THE SOVIET UNION

Three British officers and a British civilian (the head of the U.K. Commercial Corporation in Persia), two Russian and two American officers under the chairmanship of a Russian general discuss the kind of supplies needed by Russia, and how to get them through, at the Red Army Headquarters at Teheran. Below, war equipment from America and Great Britain being loaded on to a train bound for the U.S.S.R. frontier, via Persia.

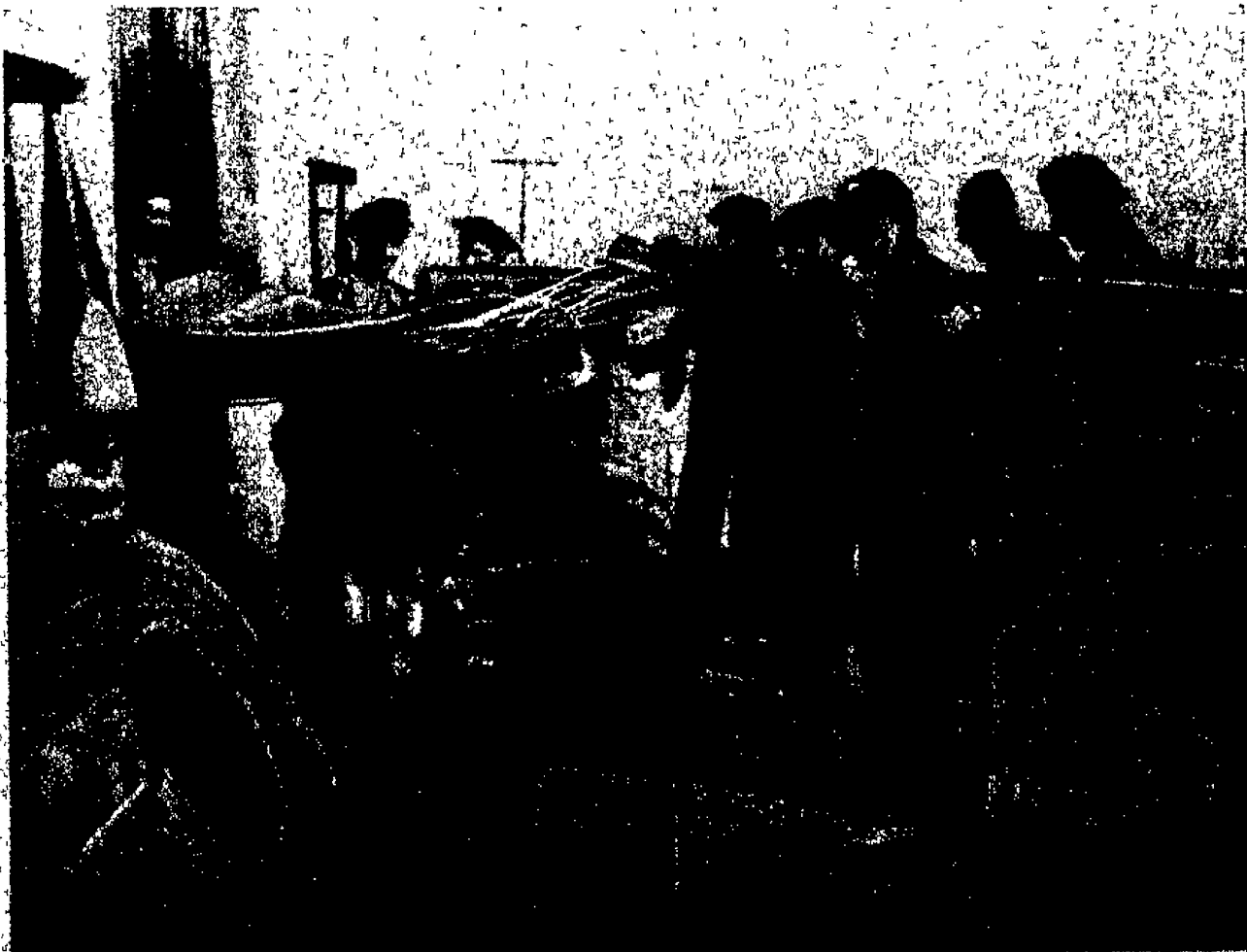
Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright

matters, several anti-French candidates outside Beirut were elected.

In Syria, Shukri Quwatli, leader of the Nationalist bloc, was elected President on August 17, and a strongly Nationalist Cabinet was formed under Saadullah Sabri. In the Lebanon, on September 21, after the elections, Bishara al Khuri was made President.

Now the stage was set for the securing by both Syria and the Lebanon of *de facto* independence. On October 11 the Lebanese Prime Minister said that the claim of complete independence by his country was based on the Atlantic Charter and on recognition by the Allies. He announced that the Constitution was to be amended by excluding non-Lebanese authorities from the exercise of any power. This was not at all to the liking of the French Committee of Liberation in Algiers, which declared that it would not recognize any such amending action unless it were taken with the consent of the French representative in Beirut.

Deadlock was complete. The Lebanese, unfurled by French objections, went their way. On November 11 M. Helleu ordered the arrest of the Nationalist members of the Syrian Parliament and the Lebanese Parliament. The French then imposed a military administration in both countries. This was done by French soldiers and native demonstrators, and casualties were numerous. At once the British authorities protested against French preponderance. Mr. Casey (British Minister of State in the Middle East) flew from Cairo to Beirut to investigate the situation. A few days later he returned to Cairo, and announced that the British Government had decided to send a military mission to Beirut to investigate the situation.



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from Algiers on Nov. 16. His timely advent was reassuring. After studying the position, General Catroux decided that M. Helleu had blundered, and that the arrested men must be freed and reinstated. M. Helleu was recalled to Algiers and replaced by M. Chataigneau.

By the end of the year the Lebanese Arabs, who had been supported throughout their crisis with significant unanimity by all Arabic-speaking States, including Egypt, felt that they had won their case: nor did they omit to thank the British for the part played in vindicating their rights.

Persia (Iran) had another troubled year in 1943, starting with a wheat crisis in Teheran in January. On February 13 the Prime Minister failed to obtain a vote of confidence in the Mejlis, and resigned. He was succeeded by M. Ali Soheily who, four days later, announced a four-point programme consisting of collaboration with Britain, the U.S.A. and Russia; procuring food supplies on a long-term basis; reduction in the cost of living and stabilization of prices; and progress in agriculture, public health and education. On this programme he received a vote of confidence by 89 out of 99 votes.

For the shortage of food, Persians

principally blamed Britain. It happened that supplies were more plentiful in those areas occupied by the Russians, and Britain was accused of being responsible for the shortage of transport. The old allegation was revived that the U.K.C.O. had commandeered railways for supplying goods to Russia, so that the Persians could not have even with

food was available. For a time, indeed, anxiety over the bread situation took the form of criticism of Britain which grew more and more violent. Not even the activities of the "Tudeh" party, the advanced Leftists of Persian politics who were most active in the Russian zone, turned the public's eye from economics to politics.

It was increasingly obvious that, unless wide powers were given to the American Financial Adviser, Dr. Millspaugh, Persian economy could not be straightened. The Prime Minister introduced a Bill to confer on the Adviser large powers, but for several weeks the Mejlis would not hear of it. Meanwhile, the scurrilous anti-British press campaign continued, with the Government apparently unable either to control it or to induce the Mejlis to permit such financial and economic action as would negative the charges. At last, however, on May 4, the Mejlis reluctantly accorded special powers to Dr. Millspaugh.

The food situation then slightly improved, and less dissatisfaction was expressed with the Allies and with the Persian Government. But criticism was not withheld for long. In June Dr. Millspaugh sponsored a new Income Tax bill, drawn up on the British model. While the bill was supported by the



BREAD FOR CIVILIAN AND SOLDIER IN THE MIDDLE EAST

Weighing sacks of grain brought in to the local O.C.P. (Office des Céréales Panifiables—office of cereals for bread-making) set up by the British, French, and local authorities in Syria and the Lebanon to buy grain from the farmers and distribute it to the people, in order to relieve distress caused by maldistribution of cereals after hostilities ceased in the area in 1941. Below, a mountain of flour brought into a Middle East port from Australia for the feeding of Allied troops.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Associated Press



Persian Left Wing, it was bitterly attacked by those papers representing vested interests. But Dr. Millspaugh was in grim earnest. He foresaw possible bankruptcy unless Persians made a radical attack on economic problems.

No Middle Eastern State, however, had shown during the war any lasting interest in the recovery of its national

economy: and already some Persians, as an offset to such recasting, were playing with the idea of Persia's joining the United Nations—not because Persians generally intended to do more for the Allied war effort but because membership of such a body might procure immediate advantages.

It was during such a period of an

certainty that Germany succeeded in sending some agents to Persia by air, and on August 22 the Government offered a large reward for the seizing of any Germans living in the country without permission. In the following month, several arrests were made, including some Persians suspected of complicity with the enemy. Yet even the danger of internal disorders was insufficient to persuade the Mejlis to pass Dr. Millspaugh's Income Tax bill, and the American expert actually handed in his resignation on October 14. His departure would have been disastrous. After strong advice from outside, including that of the Shah, the Mejlis passed the bill and Dr. Millspaugh withdrew his resignation.

German Agents in Persia

Before the end of the year, however, Persians were to have an experience wholly to their liking. This was provided by the Teheran Conference. On November 26, Marshal Stalin, M. Molotov, and Marshal Voroshilov arrived in Teheran, where the utmost precautions for security had been taken. They were followed the next day by Mr. Churchill and President Roosevelt. The leaders of the three great nations, along with Germany, Italy, and Japan, had been

days—November 28 to December 1. Though many Persians knew the secret of the meeting, not a word was allowed to leak out of the country until the conditions of security had been met. But Persians could and did show all the hospitality they were allowed, and it was a typical comment on a meeting after the conference that in the gathering "there were no Persians, no British, no Russians and no Americans—for all were Persians, all were British, all were Russians, and all were Americans."

The findings of the conference, in so far as they concerned Europe, will be found in Historic Document No. CCLXVI, page 2636; here it must be recorded that immense satisfaction was felt by Persians over the Declaration on Iran, in which the three statesmen said:

"The three Governments realize that the war has caused special economic difficulties for Iran, and they are agreed that they will continue to make available to the Government of Iran such economic assistance as may be possible. . . . The Governments of the U.S.A., the U.S.S.R., and the U.K. are at one with the Government of Iran in their desire for the maintenance of the independence, sovereignty and territorial integrity of Iran. They count upon the participation of Iran, together with all other peace-loving nations, in the establishment of international peace, security, and prosperity after the war, in accordance with the principles of the Atlantic Charter, to which all four Governments have continued to subscribe."

Persians were flattered by the choice of their country for the long-awaited meeting between Stalin, Churchill and Roosevelt, but they were really heartened by the Declaration on Iran.

Iraq began the year with an action for which her Prime Minister, Nuri Pasha, had long been ready. On January 16,

the Government announced that "in view of the hostile attitude taken by Axis Powers towards Iraq for a long period, their continued subversive activities through their agents, their hostile broadcasts, their unceasing efforts to promote disunity inside the country, their broadcast insults to the Royal Family, calculated to undermine the loyalty of the Iraqi people, and their encouragement to rebels who had tried to overthrow the Constitution," Iraq considered herself at war with Germany, Italy and Japan.

The announcement, which was duly acknowledged by Mr. Churchill, created more satisfaction than excitement and enthusiasm in Iraq, where it was explained that adherence to the United Nations implied an attitude of defiance towards the Axis powers. The declaration was received with great interest in the United States, where it was noted that Iraq had taken a bold step in the face of the overwhelming odds against her.



AMERICAN MILITARY MISSION TO THE KING OF ARABIA

Maj.-General Ralph Royce, commanding the U.S. Armed Forces in the Middle East, in December 1943 headed an American military mission to King Ibn Saud of Arabia, with whom he is here seen in conversation at his palace at Jedda, some 40 miles from Mecca. Seated on the floor is Lieut. William Kalliff, who acted as interpreter. Photo, U.S. Official

leadership of the Arab world. The Iraq Government offered Iraqi troops for service outside Iraq, but it was decided that they could best be utilized on lines of communication within Iraq.

This done, the Iraqi Government concentrated on the problem of attaining Arab unity, and all through the year efforts in this direction went on. By midsummer this campaign, furthered to some extent by alarm over the activities of Zionists in America, achieved considerable momentum. Nuri Pasha visited the Levant States in July and went on to discuss Arab unity with the Egyptian Prime Minister. His aim was to try first to secure agreement on a "United Syria" to include independent Governments of Syria, the Lebanon, Transjordan and Palestine, and he postulated in this scheme a Jewish enclave in Palestine and a Lebanon reduced to its former limited frontiers.

A pleasing success was obtained by the first visit, in November, of the Regent of Iraq to England. The Emir Abdullillah arrived back in Baghdad on December 12.

Saudi Arabia had a quiet year. While manifesting some circumspection on the question of Arab unity—or rather, on the question of recognizing Ibn Saud as the only legitimate ruler of the Arabian Peninsula, the Saudi Government was not without interest in the developments of the year.

Jews had any justification for claiming possession of Palestine. Americans displayed unwonted interest in Saudi Arabia. Mr. Kirk, U.S.A. Minister in Egypt, visited Riyadh in May and told Ibn Saud of the decision

to apply Lend-Lease to Saudi Arabia. In the following month the Arab King was visited by General Hurley, personal representative of President Roosevelt in the Middle East, and shortly afterwards the President invited Ibn Saud, or his sons, to visit America. The invitation was accepted, and later in the year the Emirs Faisal and Khalid went to the United States for the first time in their lives. On their way home they stopped in Britain for a time, arriving here on November 17.

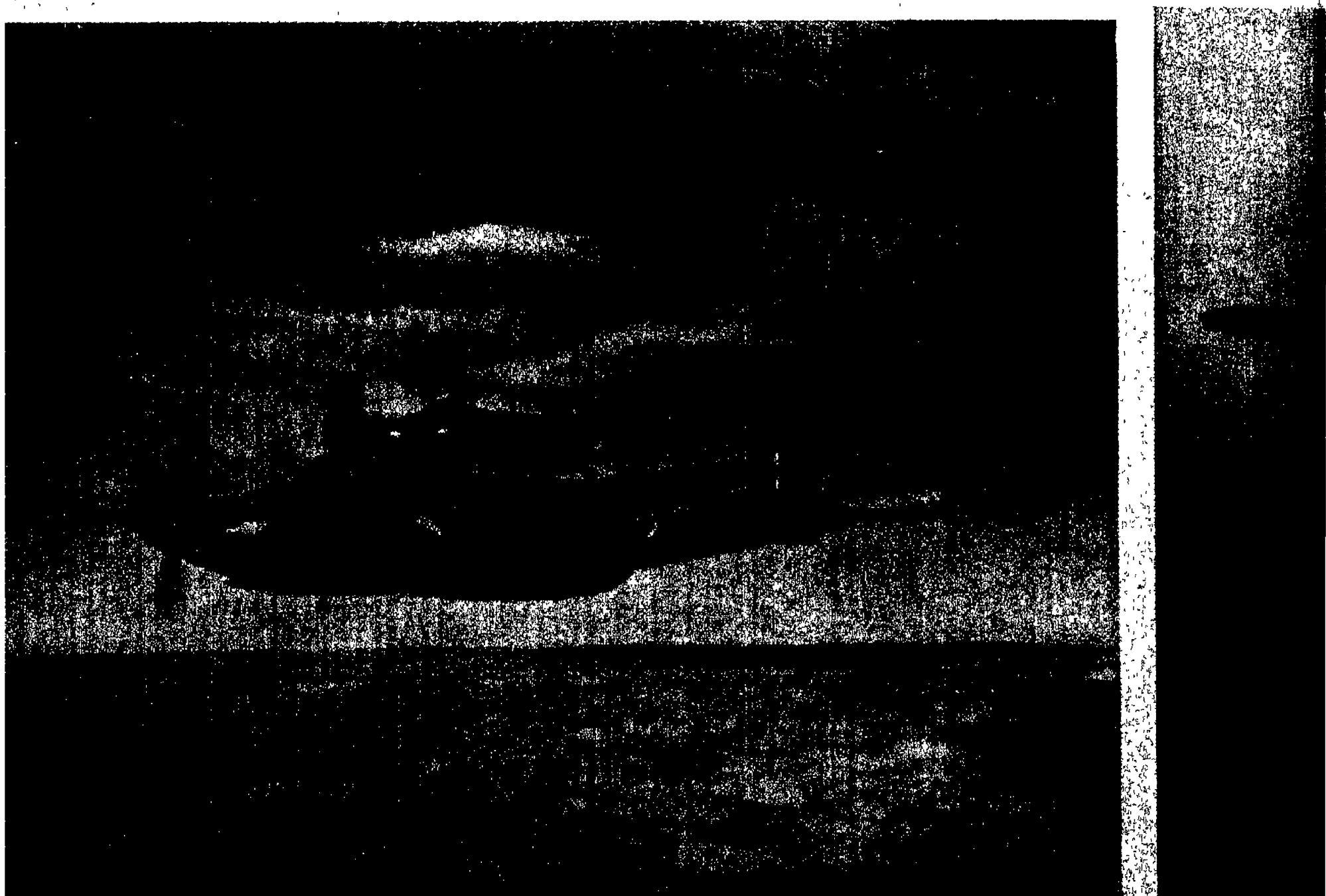
Ibn Saud had other American visitors during the year. In August President Roosevelt (who had already been approached by Ibn Saud with a request to find other places than Palestine for oppressed Jewry) sent Colonel Hoskins to discuss a possible settlement of the Palestine problem. Then in December an American Military Mission under General Royce, commanding American forces in the Middle East, arrived in Jedda. The General left behind several technical experts to investigate the possible development of an oil pipeline to examine the question of supplying Ibn Saud with arms.



ACTION ON GUADALCANAL

These spirited paintings, by Lieut. Dwight Shepler of the U.S. Navy, an artist who served on Guadalcanal during the fierce fighting of 1942-43, give a vivid impression of the country and the bitter struggle that took place there, described in Chapter 250. Above, 'Action on the River' shows Marines crossing singly a sluggish river, the Japanese enemy invisible but menacing in the dense tropical forest beyond. Right, 'Bombardment—Guadalcanal,' painted during the first anniversary battle shoot put down on December 7, 1943 (one year after Pearl Harbor) by Marine artillerymen using 155-mm. Army howitzers. Every piece of artillery on the island fired from dawn to dawn.





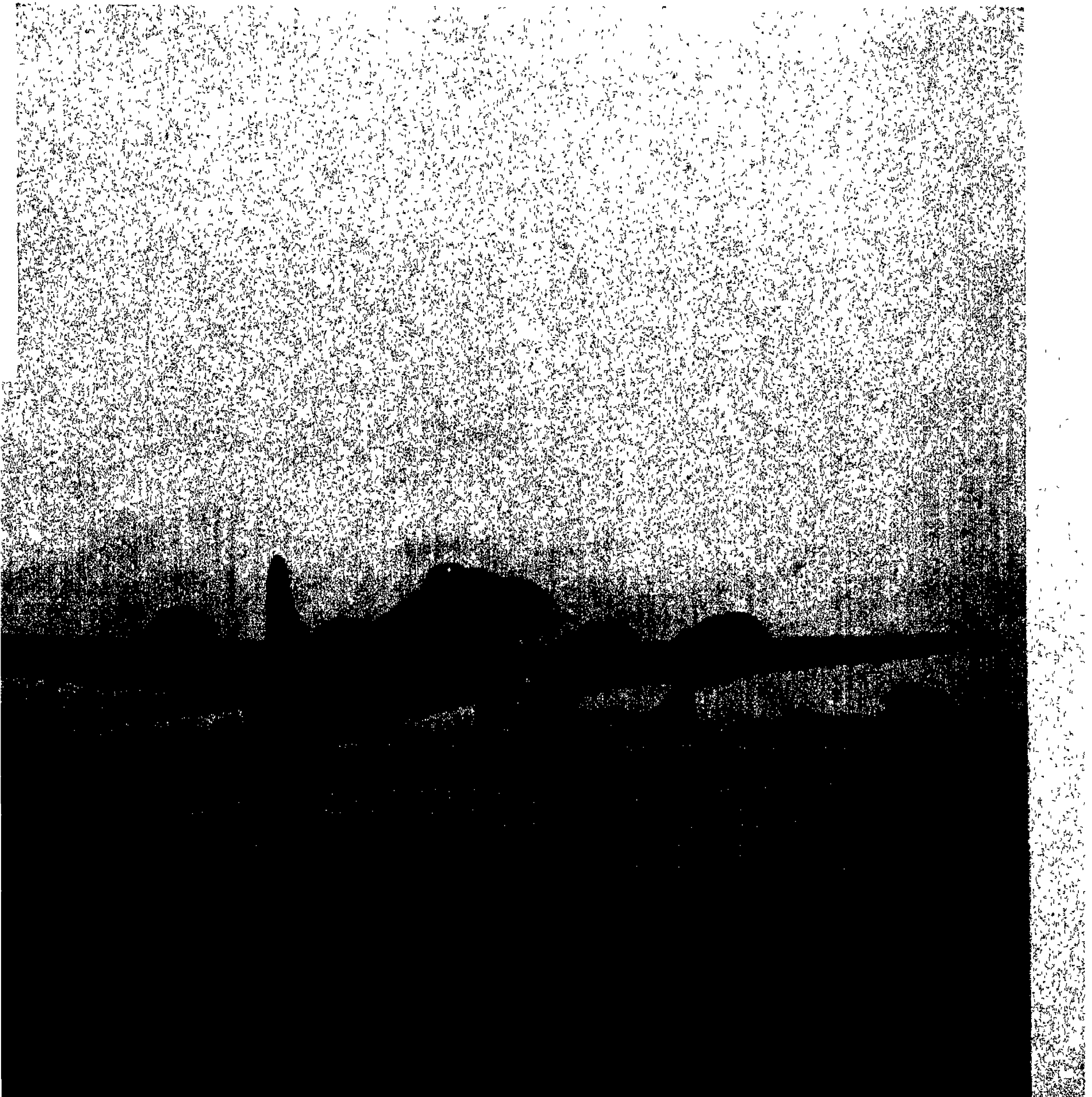
BRITISH AND AMERICAN BOMBER AIRCRAFT

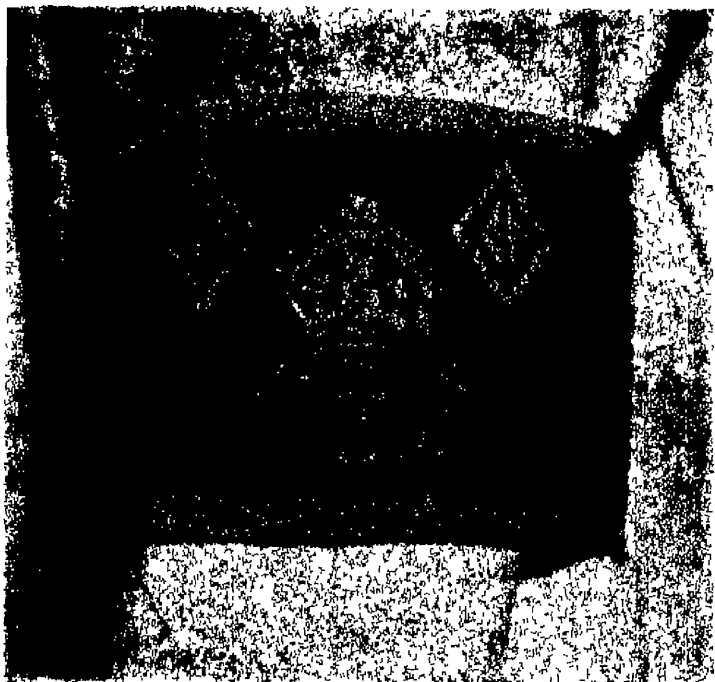
FOLLOWING page 2266 appeared direct colour photographs of four outstanding types of British and American fighter aircraft. Here are three contemporary bombers. Left, North American Mitchell B-25, an all-metal American monoplane named after a noted U.S. military pilot. Used by the U.S. Army as a medium bombardment machine, by the R.A.F. as a medium bomber, it carries a crew of five and has two Wright Double Row Cyclone air-cooled, radial motors, and a maximum speed of 308 m.p.h. at 13,000 feet. Service ceiling of the B-25 is 25,400 ft., and range at an operating speed of 243 m.p.h. 2,650 miles. Its tricycle undercarriage is backwards-retracting, the wheels completely covered when fully retracted. This aircraft has a span of 67 ft. 6 $\frac{3}{4}$ ins., length 54 ft. 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ ins.; and armament, three .30 and four .50 calibre machine-guns. Bombers of this type took part in Maj.-Gen. Doolittle's raid on Tokyo on April 18, 1942. (See illus., page 2126.)

Below, Boeing Fortress II, popularly known as the Flying Fortress, an American all-metal machine used by the U.S. Army for heavy bombardment, by Coastal Command of the R.A.F. for anti-sub-

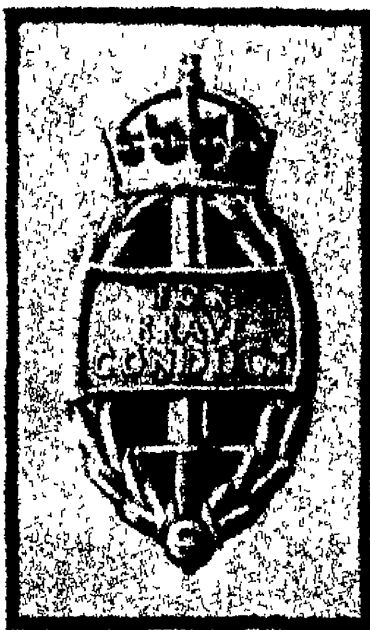
marine patrol work. It carries a crew of nine, has four Wright Double Row Cyclone motors, and a maximum speed of 305 m.p.h. at 20,000 feet. Its service ceiling is approximately 40,000 ft., span 103 ft. 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ ins., and length 73 ft. 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ ins. The forwards-retracting undercarriage main wheels are partially exposed when fully retracted. The armament of the B-17G type Fortress consists of thirteen .50 calibre machine-guns. (See illus., page 2516.)

Below, left, the De Havilland Mosquito, a British, two-seat, reconnaissance bomber of all wooden construction with a backwards-retracting undercarriage, the wheels of which are completely enclosed when fully retracted. It has two Rolls-Royce, liquid-cooled, Vee motors, and a speed not far short of 400 m.p.h. The Mosquito's span is 54 ft. 2 ins., its length 40 ft. 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ ins.; its armament may be a battery of four 20-mm. shell guns and four .303 machine-guns, and a light bomb load is carried within the fuselage. Owing to its speed it requires no fighter escort. It was first mentioned in the news when four Mosquitoes made a daylight raid on Gestapo headquarters at Oslo on September 25, 1942. (See illus., page 2176.)





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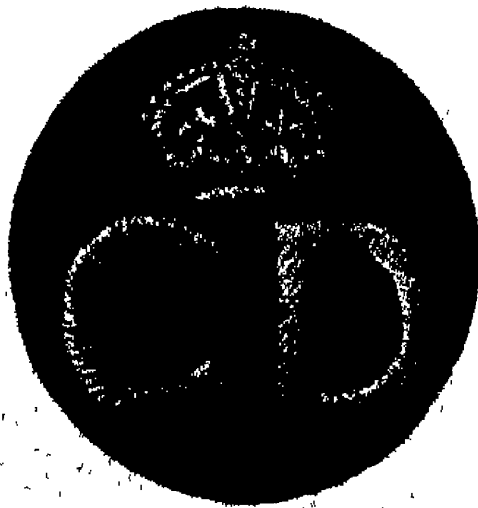
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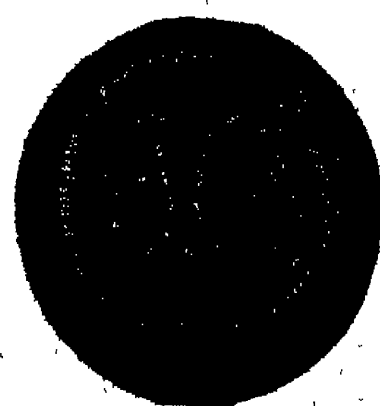
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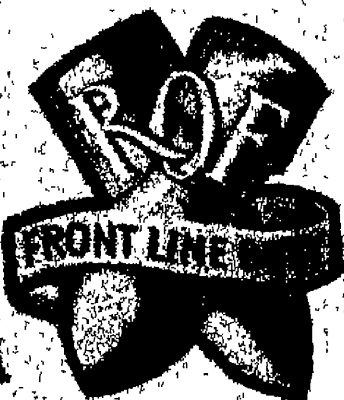
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12

BADGES OF BRITAIN'S HOME FRONT FIGHTERS

1. Women's Land Army: two years' service merit badge. 2. Merchant Navy, Civil Defence, Police, National Fire Service, and other uniformed civilians: badge awarded for brave conduct commensurations. 3. Civil Defence: armlet worn by those responsible for investigating reports of unexploded bombs. 4. Civil Defence: badge worn by qualified instructors. 5. Hospital Service: badge issued to all staff (except doctors and nurses) serving a minimum of 25 hours a month. 6. Civil Defence: service badge, and 7, that worn by Incident Officers. 8. Civil Defence: Ambulance Driver and shoulder flash. 9. Badge worn by workers in Royal Ordnance factories. 10. Boy Scouts war service armlet. 11. National Fire Service: cap badge. 12. Civil Defence: Post Warden and shoulder flash.

LORD WAVELL GOES TO INDIA AS VICEROY

During 1943 Lord Wavell's appointment as Viceroy, and the famine in Bengal, overshadowed the political situation in India which, though no simpler, was quieter than it had been in the preceding year (described in Chapter 223). India's war effort continued at a high level, relative to her resources; and her peoples increased their splendid contribution in personnel to the Allied fighting forces

EARLY in 1943 political controversies in India became overshadowed by anxiety over the economic situation. The detention of Congress Party leaders and the effective measures taken to suppress the disturbances of the autumn of 1942 had brought about an outward lull in political activities, although under the surface there lurked a sense of disappointment.

Defeatist views, which were admitted to have played a large part in the decisions of the Congress Party and its sympathizers, had been discounted by the signs of successful Russian resistance to the German attack. The conference at Casablanca was regarded in India as a portent of Axis discomfiture, especially as it was followed by the prompt visit to India of Sir John Dill. And General Arnold, who had seen Marshal Chiang Kai-shek at Chungking and then in Delhi, acquainted Sir Archibald Wavell, Commander-in-Chief India, with the plans for the United Nations' action against Japan.

This accord and the falling off in enemy air activity over eastern India, increased the confidence of the Indian people. The economic problem had, however, become so much a matter of concern that it took a prominent place in the discussions of the National Defence Council's eighth session in the third week in January. The lack of popular interest in politics was shown by the placid passing of "Independence Day" (January 26).

Mr. Gandhi by his threat of a fast endeavoured to frighten the Government into releasing him unconditionally. But the Government refused to be deflected. They could not be responsible for the effects of a fast on his health, nor prevent him from trying it. Mr. Gandhi had indicated that he proposed to fast for the release of the Congress leaders. The Government

This did not greatly reassure that section of the Indian public which is traditionally susceptible to emotional apprehension. Indeed, three members of the Viceroy's Council (Cabinet) who had been parties to Mr. Gandhi's arrest, felt impelled to resign and made no

Mention of these appointments makes it convenient to explain that the Government of India is the Executive Council of the Viceroy. It consists of the Viceroy as President, the Commander-in-Chief as Extraordinary Member (with the portfolio of War), and 13 other Members, of whom all except four are Indians.

This Council is in effect a Cabinet, responsible to the British Parliament through the Secretary of State for India. The term "Member"—the capital letter is important—connotes a rank and authority better understood by the word "Minister" in other countries. The Viceroy has—within certain well-defined limits—the power of overriding his Council's decisions, which otherwise go by majority vote. This power of the Viceroy has not been used, at any rate since the enlargement of the Council in 1941.

In the Provinces of British India, according to the Constitution of 1935, the Governors govern by and with the advice of Indian Ministers chosen from, and responsible to, elected Indian Provincial Legislatures—the total electorate in the 11 provinces amounting to 35,000,000 voters. Here, the term "Minister" has replaced that of "Member." Until November 1939 all the 11 provinces had ministerial autonomous governments which had come into power in 1937 as the result of the first elections under the Constitution of 1935.

The decision of the Congress Party to withdraw its supporters from the eight provinces where they had formed Ministries broke this uniformity. In two provinces alternative Ministries were formed so that in 1942 the Congress was still represented in the Provincial Legislatures.



INDIAN ARMY FIELD AMBULANCE

The Fourth Indian Division played a conspicuous part in the fighting in Tunisia, helping to pierce the Mareth Line in March 1943, capturing Wadi Akarit positions on April 5, occupying Sfax on April 19, and taking part in the final break through to Tunis and Bizerte (during which General von Arnim surrendered to a colonel of Gurkhas). This Field Ambulance of the Indian Army Medical Corps (created in 1943) is carrying to safety a member of a Gurkha battalion wounded in the Eighth Army's attack on the Mareth Line.

Photo, British Official. Crown Copyright.

secret of the reasons. They were Sir Hormusji Mody, Mr. M. S. Aney and Mr. Nalini Sarkar.

Their portfolios of Supply, Indian Overseas, and Commerce were eventually accepted by Sir Ramaswami Mudaliar, Dr. N. B. Khare (formerly the Congress Party Premier of the Central Provinces), and Mr. K. S. Thirumalaiah.

about 110 millions): while emergency governments (the Governors acting with Advisers) were operating under the Constitution in the remaining five provinces: Bihar, Bombay, Central Provinces, Madras, United Provinces (about 180 millions).

It should be recalled that the decision of the Congress Party "High Command" or Central Executive was pressed on the Provincial Ministries of its political complexion against the will of some of the Ministers concerned.

In 1943 the sense of dissatisfaction over the breakdown of the negotiations with Sir Stafford Cripps in the preceding year, and the virtual extinction of the

Growth of the Muslim League

influence of the Congress Party leaders by the consequences of their own actions in August 1942, stimulated heart-searching among the rank and file. The danger of permitting to a Party executive extra-mural authority over the elected members of Legislatures was becoming more clearly appreciated. This was sharply underlined by the strides made by Mr. M. A. Jinnah in organizing the solidarity of Muslim political strength against the Congress Party itself. By the end of the year the Muslim League had become a powerful instrument in Mr. Jinnah's hands, and was threatening the Muslim-Hindu-Sikh coalition in the Punjab, where Provincial Autonomy had proved to be workable in Indian hands and sectional differences had been ad-

justed in a spirit of compromise and good will.

The successful expansion of India's military and industrial effort for the prosecution of the war, against Germany in the West and—in ever-increasing force—against Japan in the East, indicated the lack of nationalist enthusiasm of the mass of the people, and showed how far the Congress Party and, in a less degree, the Muslim League had failed to grasp the realities of the situation. Mr. Gandhi's theatrical fast was a characteristic bid for re-entry into the limelight, but the firmness of the Government convinced Mr. Gandhi that he had failed. On March 3 the fast ended.

Nevertheless, the personal prestige enjoyed by Mr. Gandhi moved even those among his supporters who deplored his fatal leadership in 1942 to urge some action by the Government to remove the "deadlock," and so enable the Congress Party to re-enter political life in the full sense of the term. This view received support from sympathizers in Great Britain and America.

In April Lord

Linlithgow refused permission for five Hindu politicians (including Mr. Rajagopalachariar, the former Prime Minister of Madras who had broken with Mr. Gandhi over the Cripps proposals) to interview Mr. Gandhi in internment. The Viceroy could not accept the contention that a genuine national government could be formed on the basis of such an interview, for the essential preliminary was agreement between the parties, communities and interests to which the excessive claims of the Congress Party had been an obstacle. The other parties approved the Viceroy's attitude.

Under the auspices of the newly created Food Department of the Central Government, the second All-India Food Conference was held in Delhi at the end of February. The year had opened with good prospects for all grains



MEN OF THE WORLD'S LARGEST VOLUNTEER ARMY

Of the 2,000,000 volunteers who made up the Indian Army in 1943, nearly half a million had seen service overseas. They did splendid work throughout the campaigns in Africa and went on to further battles in Italy and Japan. Like most soldiers, that of India has undergone mechanization. Here most of the Indian Army's units are receiving instruction in German. They are also being equipped with modern weapons and a new type of transport. They are now being trained in the use of modern weapons and a new type of transport. They are now being trained in the use of modern weapons and a new type of transport.

except rice, which had been badly affected by cyclones and floods. It was estimated that in wheat production there would be a surplus of 1,000,000 tons. But in parts of India, rice is the staple food-grain, and the cyclone's destruction of standing crops and stores of rice in rice-producing Bengal created an unpromising situation.

The Chief Minister of Bengal (then Mr. Fazlul Huq) told the Conference that Bengal could feed itself so long as it was not asked to accept responsibility for supplying food to the All-India pool. This calculation turned out to be inaccurate. The Minister's position indeed was precarious. By the end of March he had resigned, and his place was taken by Kwaja Sir Nazimuddin, a member of the Muslim League who succeeded in forming a coalition Ministry on which fell the burden of handling an increasingly grave economic situation.

By May the gravity of the crisis was apparent to the Government of India, but measures constitutionally within



THE VICEROY SEES FOR HIMSELF

Immediately after his assumption of the Viceroyalty on October 20, 1943, Lord Wavell visited Calcutta and the famine-stricken district of Midnapore in order to see for himself what was happening. He is seen here at a Rotary Club Free Kitchen in Calcutta with Lady Wavell, Mr. E. M. Jenkins (his private secretary), Sir Thomas Rutherford (acting Governor of Bengal), and Mr. J. K. Briswas, chairman of the Rotary Club Relief Committee. His announcement that the Army would help in the distribution of food was promptly given effect: right, an army truck being loaded with grain. Below, distributing clothing to sufferers in a shelter for the destitute.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright: Keystone: Topical Press





ALL-INDIA MUSLIM LEAGUE CONVENTION

The 30th session of the All-India Muslim League was held at New Delhi from April 24-26, 1943, under the presidency of Mr. Jinnah, re-elected to that office on March 7. In his presidential address, he emphatically reiterated the League's demand for Pakistan—that is, an independent Muslim state in India—a demand endorsed by the convention, which also strongly condemned the anti-Indian legislation in South Africa, and urged the government to frame food policies in consultation with representatives of the people.

Photo, Keystone

the competence of the Central Government were ineffective in mitigating Bengal's difficulties. The Governments of Bombay and Madras, as well as the Indian-ruled States of Travancore and Cochin, were also confronted by a serious scarcity of rice, but by control and rationing they averted a breakdown.

Looking at the food problem in India as a whole, Sir Azizul Haque, when Food Minister, told the Central Legislature in August: "the consumption needs of India had been calculated on the basis of an average adult diet of one lb. of food-grains per diem," which gave a total of 50½ million tons, in addition to 4½ million tons seed requirements—55 million tons in all. Normal production could be raised at 60½ million tons.

Recognizing the special difficulties in Bengal, the population of 60 millions, and the fact that the province was the only one in which the food-grain production was less than the consumption, the Government of India, in 1942, decided to make Bengal a self-sufficient province in food-grains.

more fortunate provinces for the supply of grain to Bengal would operate successfully. In point of fact, only about a quarter of the figure proposed reached Bengal in the first half of 1943.

The law courts treated offenders against the food laws so lightly that confidence fell. The householders in towns took to stocking food against future needs. To sum up, a primitive economy was strained to breaking-point by the complex weight of the vicissitudes of war, the inexperience of a recently set up autonomous ministerial government, the lack of a firmly based civic consciousness, and the diffidence of the Central Government (which was loth to expose itself to the charge of imprudent interference with the functions of an Indian-ministered Ministry).

As these factors increased their cumulative effect, the Government of India, in 1942, decided to make Bengal a self-sufficient province in food-grains.

large quantities of food. Taking the shortage of the Bengal harvest as about 15 per cent, there might have been hardship but certainly not disaster if an even distribution could have been made throughout the province. But the cultivators' retention of grain in the apprehension created by the cyclone passed on the shortage to the towns where it reached, for the urban population, the dimensions of 40/50 per cent. On top of this, the perversity of the speculator and the weaknesses in the Government proved calamitous.

In October Lord Linlithgow's term of office—the longest ever borne by any Viceroy—ended, and Lord Wavell, who had been Commander-in-Chief when the year began, took his place (see illus., page 2596). By that time the mortality from famine in Bengal had attracted world attention.

The decision of the Government to break with precedent and appoint an eminent soldier as Viceroy was generally applauded. This did not prevent criticism from those to whom the tradition, thus ignored, was precious. Even they seemed to be

**Lord Wavell
Appointed
Viceroy**

prepared to recognize the overriding claims of the situation and, more importantly, the special appeal which, as Commander-in-Chief in India, and as a leader of men in Africa, Lord Wavell had inspired. His personality in short had struck the imagination of Indians, in politics as well as in the administration.

On his assumption of the Viceroyalty (October 20), Lord Wavell promptly showed his sense of the urgency of the famine position in Bengal. Within four days he was in Calcutta, and after a personal visit to the stricken district of Midnapore, he announced that the Army had been asked to help in relief of the people of Bengal. General Auchinleck, who succeeded Lord Wavell as Commander-in-Chief, at once set military assistance in motion. Emergency measures thus taken were directed toward the relief of sufferers—disease taking a heavy toll of an underfed population—and toward the improvement of methods of distribution. Lord Wavell further showed his appreciation of the paramount call of the Bengal famine by making concentration on that problem the ground for not addressing the two houses of the Central Legislature when they met in November.

Indeed, realizing that when the immediate problem of relief had been solved there remained the highly important task of ensuring that famine would not recur, Lord Wavell, in 1943, decided to make Bengal a self-sufficient province in food-grains.

thereby to enlist such co-operation from the Provincial Governments that the unhappy events of 1943 would not be repeated. As it was, his personal intervention brought about an agreement which had hitherto been lacking.

Not until the early part of 1944 was the Government of Bengal able to issue figures showing that the total deaths from all causes in the province during 1943 amounted to 1,873,749, which exceeded the normal average of the previous five years by 688,846. Deaths from cholera were 214,175, or 160,909 above the average, and from malaria 674,330 or 285,792 above the average—the prevalence of both diseases being undoubtedly accentuated by the food shortage, and the movement of people from

rural districts into the towns in search of food. These official figures, while not completely comprehensive, for the normal defects of the recording agencies would be enhanced by the dislocation attendant on the disaster, effectively contradicted some unofficial estimates made in token surveys on a "sample" basis, which give the figure of deaths at 1006 of the population.

The picture of India's war effort must not get out of focus because this poignant tragedy of human

disaster has demanded—and deserved—close attention. In a sense, the famine illustrated the greatness of India's contribution to the strength of the United Nations, if only because it showed how heavy had been the strain of the conflict on what is after



AMERICANS IN INDIA

Left: American troops arriving in India for service against the Japanese on the Burmese and Chinese fronts. During 1943 many thousands of Americans received in India the preliminary training required for jungle fighting. They also learned to use the elephant for transport in the Naga Hills near the Burma border (above), where they built a number of bases with the aid of native workers.

Photos, Pictorial Press; Keystone

all a country of primitive economy.

The actual operations in which Indian, British, American and Chinese forces were engaged against the Japanese in Burma are described in Chapter 270. In support of those operations, the Com- India's War mander-in-Chief India Contributions had the rôle of supplying

Vice-Admiral Lord Louis Mountbatten, Supreme Allied Commander of the South-East Asia Command (created in August 1943, with headquarters at Delhi), with the tools for the job, whether by the provision of man-power from the Army in India, or by the intensified mobilization of supplies of all kinds under the leadership of the Government of India.

The achievements of the Fourth and Fifth Indian Divisions in Africa were a source of intense pride to the people of India. (See *Illustration*, page 2647.)

The expansion of the Indian Army, which had reached the high point of strength of 2,000,000—the largest in the world—had been a remarkable achievement, and it was a source of pride to the people of India.



ESTABLISHING NEW AIRFIELDS IN INDIA

During the war the aeroplane became familiar in many parts of India where the natives had never seen a railway train, but the bullock, patient draught animal of centuries, remained a common object—even on airfields. Right, Air Chief Marshal Sir Richard Peirse, K.C.B., D.S.O., A.F.C., Air Officer Commanding-in-Chief, India (appointed A.O. C.-in-C. S.-E. Asia Command, December 1943) talking to Air Vice-Marshal T. M. Williams, A.O. Commanding Bengal, during a tour of Bengal in the summer of 1943. Below, Indian women labourers helping to construct an airfield for American aircraft.

Photos, British Official: Keystone



revealed in the publication of India's total casualties in the field for the first three years of war: 101,979; of whom 3,286 were killed, 9,168 wounded, 9,236 prisoners, and 80,289 missing.

By the end of the year Lord Wavell's dependancy was in fair way to being established, and corrective measures taken by the Central Government had resulted in improvements in the general economy of India. Rising prices had been checked by monetary regulations and by the control of commodities.

The Government's determination to

make control effective restored public confidence. India could not emulate the results achieved in highly organized countries, but her Government, moving slowly perhaps, could claim that its efforts should be judged in the light of the experience of other countries similarly situated, at a comparable stage of development, and also exposed to the varying fortunes of a global war. The Government, indeed, set itself to handle the affairs of a country peculiarly susceptible to rumour and panic, by striving to restore a sense of balance

without which action designed to counteract panic would fail in remedial effect.

India's lessened apprehensions about the outcome of the war were exemplified in December when the sharpest air raid the Japanese had yet inflicted on Calcutta caused nothing like the excitement and dislocation which had followed the raids of the previous year.

The Japanese employment of Subhas Chandra Bose, ex-Mayor of Calcutta, ex-President of the Congress Party, and ex-L.C.C. as the mouthpiece of their

propaganda and the leader of their so-called "Indian Army of Invasion" made little impression. Perhaps his native Bengal, as the province in the forefront of the battle, was little disposed to listen to the protestations of one whom it knew so well. Certainly, the anxieties caused by the Japanese advance seemed to be tempered by the conviction that the enemy could not be formidable if he placed any reliance, or depended to any extent, on Subhas Chandra's military leadership.

The war effort for which India is responsible had in 1943 reached a high pitch in quality and quantity, bearing in mind the resources available. There

Burden of India's War Effort was no thought of slackening or denying commitments entered into towards the United Nations. But a substantial increase in the demands on India's skilled man-power and materials would impose a severe additional burden on her economy. This the Government made clear, introducing safeguards calculated to preserve India's economic stability so that the welfare of her people and her consequent utility as a base of operations would not be imperilled.

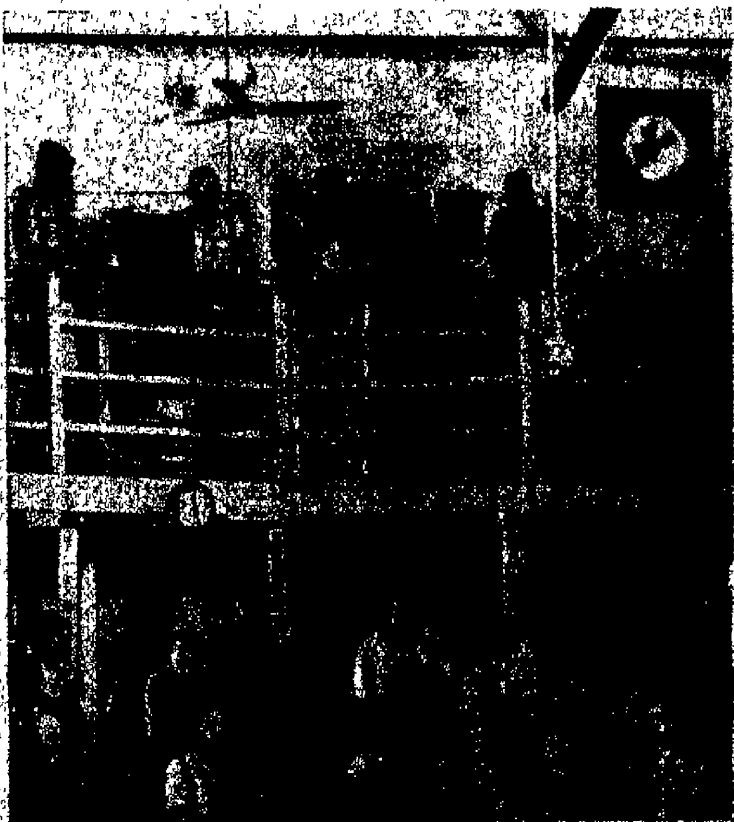
The task of handling the great increase of military stores in India owing to the arrivals of guns, ammunition, tanks, lorries and equipment of all kinds from the United Kingdom, U.S.A., Canada and Australia posed difficult problems, towards the solution of which good

tion. Improvement in the condition of service for Indian troops was effected. The welfare of the Indian soldier has long been looked after by the network of Soldiers' District Boards co-ordinated by a Central Board at General Headquarters. This work was strengthened by the appointment of civil liaison officers to ensure the well-being of the serviceman's family, and also of discharged or disabled servicemen.

Four years of war inevitably caused a partial interruption of social and cultural relations between India and the outside world, particularly Great Britain. Incidental to the establishment of the South-East Asia Command, there was much going to and fro of Service officers of the British and American forces, and missions on their way to China passed through India. But the flow of cultural relationships was checked. The exigencies of the famine, it is true, brought out to India important experts from the Ministry of Food, whose advice and guidance

proved invaluable. It was perceived, however, that interchange of opinion in other fields would be valuable. To this end, the visit to India of Professor A. V. Hill, M.P., was of first importance. Professor Hill's eminence in science as Secretary of the Royal Society, of which there are six Indian Fellows, gave distinction to his acceptance of the invitation to advise the Government of India on matters of scientific research in industry.

Lord Wavell ended a public speech in Calcutta (important extracts from which will be found in Historic Document No. CCLXVIII, page 2636) with words that may fittingly end this Chapter: "As head of the Government, and an old and sincere friend of India, I will do my best during my term of office to guide India on her path to a better future. It is no easy path, there are no short cuts, but I do believe in the future greatness that lies ahead if we can work together to the solution of our problems."



progress was made during the year. There were more British troops in India than at any time in her history. In addition, the American forces and India's own expanded army, Air Force (which reached its 10th birthday in April) and Royal Indian Navy further eased the responsibility of the Government.



MEN AND WOMEN OF INDIA TAKE TO THE AIR

A radiologist doctor and Sepoy nurses belonging to an airborne unit of the Indian Army Medical Corps directing the unloading of X-ray equipment from a Bistey bomber. Left, personnel of the Indian Air Force, Royal Air Force, and Women's Auxiliary Corps (India) at work in the plotting-room of a radiolocation station. Below, men of a Gurkha regiment begin their training as parachutists at a centre in North-west India.



Diary of the War

JANUARY and FEBRUARY, 1943

January 1, 1943. Velike Luki fell to the Red Army; Elista, capital of Kalmuck Soviet Republic, reoccupied by Russians.

January 2. Chinese troops recaptured Chien-shan and Taihu on Anhwei-Hupeh border (China). Buna Mission (New Guinea) captured by the Allies.

January 3. Mozdok recaptured by Russians. U.S. heavy bombers attacked U-boat base at St. Nazaire by day. Macheng (E. Hupeh, China) captured by Japanese. Flying Fortresses raided Rabaul for fifth time in eight days.

January 4. Russians recaptured Chernyshkovsky and Chernyshkov station.

January 5. Nalchik recaptured by Russians; Kalmuck Republic cleared of the enemy. Formation of American Fifth Army in Tunisia under Lt.-Gen. Mark W. Clark announced. Nine ships aggregating 50,000 tons sunk in Rabaul harbour by U.S. bombers.

January 6-9. Action against Japanese convoy: three transports sunk, three others probably sunk, 85 Japanese planes destroyed, another 29 probably destroyed.

January 9. Essen heavily bombed by night, many 4,000 lb. bombs being dropped.

January 11. Naples attacked by day by Africa-based American bombers.

January 12. General Leclerc's Fighting French forces from the Chad completed the conquest of the Fezzan.

January 13. U.S. Fortresses (three lost) attacked Lille by day; heavy attack on the Ruhr (eighth in 11 nights) by R.A.F. Hard fighting near Rathedaung (Burma).

January 14. Bomber Command heavily attacked by night the enemy U-boat base at Lorient.

January 14-24. President Roosevelt and Mr. Churchill and their Chiefs of Staff met at Casablanca, N. Africa, for the "unconditional surrender" conference.

January 15. Another R.A.F. night attack on Lorient. Eighth Army launched an offensive, successful at all points, on enemy positions near Buerat (Tripolitania).

January 16. In the Stalingrad factory area, enemy dislodged from another 26 strong-points. Berlin bombed at night by strong force of British four-engined bombers; one plane lost. Sanananda Point (New Guinea) stormed by Australians.

January 16-17. Five Japanese ships, totalling 25,000 tons, sunk or severely damaged in air raid on Rabaul.

January 17. Powerful new offensive launched south of Voronezh by Soviet forces; Millerovo recaptured. Strong R.A.F. formations dropped great weight of bombs on Berlin, including 9,000 lb. bombs and thousands of incendiaries; 22 bombers lost. London had first night attack by Mosquitoes; 10 raiders shot down by fighters of German night-fighter force. Berlin attacked by British heavy bombers.

January 17-19. U.S. heavy bombers attacked U-boat base at St. Nazaire by day. Flying Fortresses raided Rabaul for sixth time in eight days.

January 18. Siege of Leningrad raised. U.S. forces on Guadalcanal captured ridge dominating Henderson airfield.

January 20. Ostrogorsk, 50 miles south of Voronezh, recaptured by Russians. Forty-two children and six teachers killed in day raid on London; 11 enemy planes destroyed.

January 21. Voroshilovsk recaptured by Russian Caucasian Army. Homs and Tahuna (Tripolitania) occupied by Eighth Army.

January 22. Salsk recaptured by Russian tank forces.

January 23. Eighth Army enters Tripoli. Armavir in the Caucasus recaptured by Russians. Brest and Lorient U-boat bases bombed by day by U.S. Fortresses. Ground fighting in Papua ceased.

January 23-24. Successful combined operations raid by British forces on Lervik, Norway.

January 25. Russians cleared Voronezh of enemy. Advanced units of General Leclerc's Fighting French forces joined Eighth Army.

January 27. Siege of Stalingrad raised. Americans attacked Germany for first time in day raid on Wilhelmshaven. "Saturation" night raid by R.A.F. on Duesseldorf.

January 29. Armoured cars of Eighth Army crossed the Tripolitania-Tunisia border.

January 29-February 4. Air-sea action in the Solomons: two Japanese destroyers, one corvette, two supply ships sunk, four destroyers probably sunk, six destroyers, one corvette and two cargo ships damaged, 61 aircraft destroyed; American losses: one cruiser, one destroyer, three M.T.B.s and 22 aircraft.

January 30. Mr. Churchill visited President Inonu of Turkey at Adana. Maikop and Tikhoretsk in the Caucasus recaptured by Soviet forces. R.A.F. raided Berlin twice (first daytime raids), causing postponement by an hour of Goering broadcast, and interrupting Goebbels' broadcast of Hitler's proclamation on 10th anniversary of Nazi regime. Germans occupied Paid Pass (Tunisia).

January 31. Complete annihilation of German Sixth Army (originally 330,000 strong) at Stalingrad reported. Eighth Army occupied Zuara, last port in Tripolitania.

February 2. Last centre of resistance in Stalingrad area crushed; battle of Stalingrad concluded. "Saturation" night attack by R.A.F. on Cologne; factories used for building U-boats heavily bombed.

February 3. Kaptanak and Krasny-Lapan in the Ukraine recaptured by Red Army.

February 3. Day raid on the Ruhr by British heavy bombers. Flying Fortresses attacked U-boat base at St. Nazaire by day. Flying Fortresses raided Rabaul for seventh time in eight days.

February 6. Announcement of creation of North African Operational Theatre under the command of Lieut.-General Eisenhower. Air victory over Wau (New Guinea): 37 Allied fighters destroyed 26 of 71 enemy planes and severely damaged another 15.

February 7. Azov recaptured by Soviet troops. U.S. troops on Guadalcanal reached Titi.

February 8. Kursk recaptured by Russians.

February 9. Byelgorod recaptured by Soviet troops.

February 10. Bitter fighting in suburbs of Rostov. Whole of Guadalcanal reported in American hands.

February 11. Lozovaya (Ukraine) reoccupied by Russians. Heavy concentrated night attack by R.A.F. on Wilhelmshaven: main ammunition depot destroyed.

February 12. Russians stormed Krasnodar, capital of the Kuban.

February 13. Novochoerkassk, Don Cossack capital, recaptured by Russians. Two concentrated night attacks on Lorient.

February 14. Rostov recaptured for second time by Red Army; Voroshilovgrad also recaptured. Heavy night attacks on Cologne and Milan. Sidi Bou Sid (Tunisia) captured by Germans. Rabaul (New Britain), Munda (Solomons), and Kiska (Aleutians) bombed by U.S. aircraft.

February 15. Gafsa evacuated by Americans; Ben Gardane occupied by Eighth Army (Tunisia).

February 16. Kharkov, capital of the Ukraine, recaptured by Red Army; held by the enemy since October 29, 1941.

February 17. Germans captured Sbeitla, Kasserine, and Feriana (Tunisia).

February 18. Zalegosch captured by Red Army. Eighth Army occupied Four Tatahouine (Tunisia).

February 20. Krasnograd and Pavlograd recaptured by Red Army. Eighth Army occupied Medenine (Tunisia).

February 21. Enemy attack towards Thala (Tunisia) held by British.

February 22. Night commando raid without loss by seaborne British troops on Myebon (Burma).

February 23. Sumi recaptured by Red Army.

February 25. R.A.F. heavily bombed Nuremberg at night. British and American units reoccupied Kasserine Pass; Eighth Army penetrated to the line of the Wadi Zigzau (Tunisia).

February 26. U.S. bombers made heavy daylight attack on Wilhelmshaven; heavy night attack by R.A.F. on Cologne. U.S. Fortresses made three-hour attack on Wewak (New Guinea).

February 27. Kasserine reoccupied by Americans (Tunisia).

February 28. Violent tank battles in Donets basin. Very heavy night attack on St. Nazaire U-boat base.

ALLIED AIR POWER GAINS THE UPPER HAND

During 1943 new machines and new weapons increased the range, powers of attack and defensibility of Allied aircraft; and the changeover from defensive to offensive gave the Allies opportunities for developing new ways of using their growing air power. Captain Norman Macmillan here reviews events in the fighting zones; in a later Chapter he will describe the intensive and mounting assault on Germany's war production prior to the invasion of France in 1944

DURING 1943 the major executive development in the employment of air power was the greater recognition accorded to the division of air forces into strategical and tactical commands, each equally able to operate separately as a complete air force, or to combine under a supreme commander, responsible not for their tactical control, but for the direction of all air operations in a complete theatre of war.

The first real organization of the overriding control of two air forces, one strategical and the other tactical, came after Air Chief Marshal Sir Arthur Tedder assumed command in the Middle East. Air Vice-Marshal Sir Arthur Coningham commanded No. 1 Tactical Air Force (as it was later called) working with the Eighth Army, and Air Vice-Marshal Sir Leonard Slatter commanded the East Mediterranean Strategical Air Force.

On January 9, 1943, the appointment was announced of Major-General Carl Spaatz, who had commanded the 8th U.S. Army Air Force in Britain, as C-in-C. Allied Air Forces in North Africa (see illus., p. 2519). On Jan. 15 Air Chief Marshal Sir Sholto Douglas reached Cairo as C-in-C. R.A.F. Middle East. Executive control of air power was further expanded following the advance of the Eighth Army from Tripolitania into Tunisia, which began on January 29, 1943, when armoured cars of the advance guard crossed the border. On February 11 Mr. Churchill announced the appointment of Air Chief Marshal Tedder to control all

Air Forces air forces in the Mediterranean and the Middle East. The air forces attached to the British First and Eighth Armies, the American Army in Algeria and Tunisia, and the aircraft based on Malta, all came under Tedder's immediate control.

Air Vice-Marshal Sir Arthur Coningham assumed tactical command in north-west Africa under General Spaatz, who was responsible to Tedder for the direction of all operations there. On February 15 the appointment was announced of Air Vice-Marshal Harry

the Western Desert Allied Air Forces. These air commanders, under General Eisenhower, were responsible for the final stages of the Allied victory in North Africa.

The original small strategical air force that had been commanded by Slatter was now a far larger force, able to play an important part in preparing the way for the tactical air force operating in close support of the army. Indeed, the strategical air force became the spearhead of all three Services by attacking ports, airfields, shipping, railways, factories and other targets hundreds of miles distant from the actual fighting zone, and so strangulating enemy power to wage war.

The old idea of air co-operation with the army, represented by the pre-war No. 22 Army Co-operation Group of Fighter Command which proceeded to France in 1939 with the Air Component of the British Expeditionary Force, was dead. In its place had arisen the tactical air force developed by Tedder, Coningham and General Montgomery. But it was not so much in its com-

position—for the air component had possessed a few medium bombers allocated from Bomber Command and some fighters transferred from Fighter Command—as in the employment of the force, that the innovation lay. And to be historically accurate, even this was scarcely

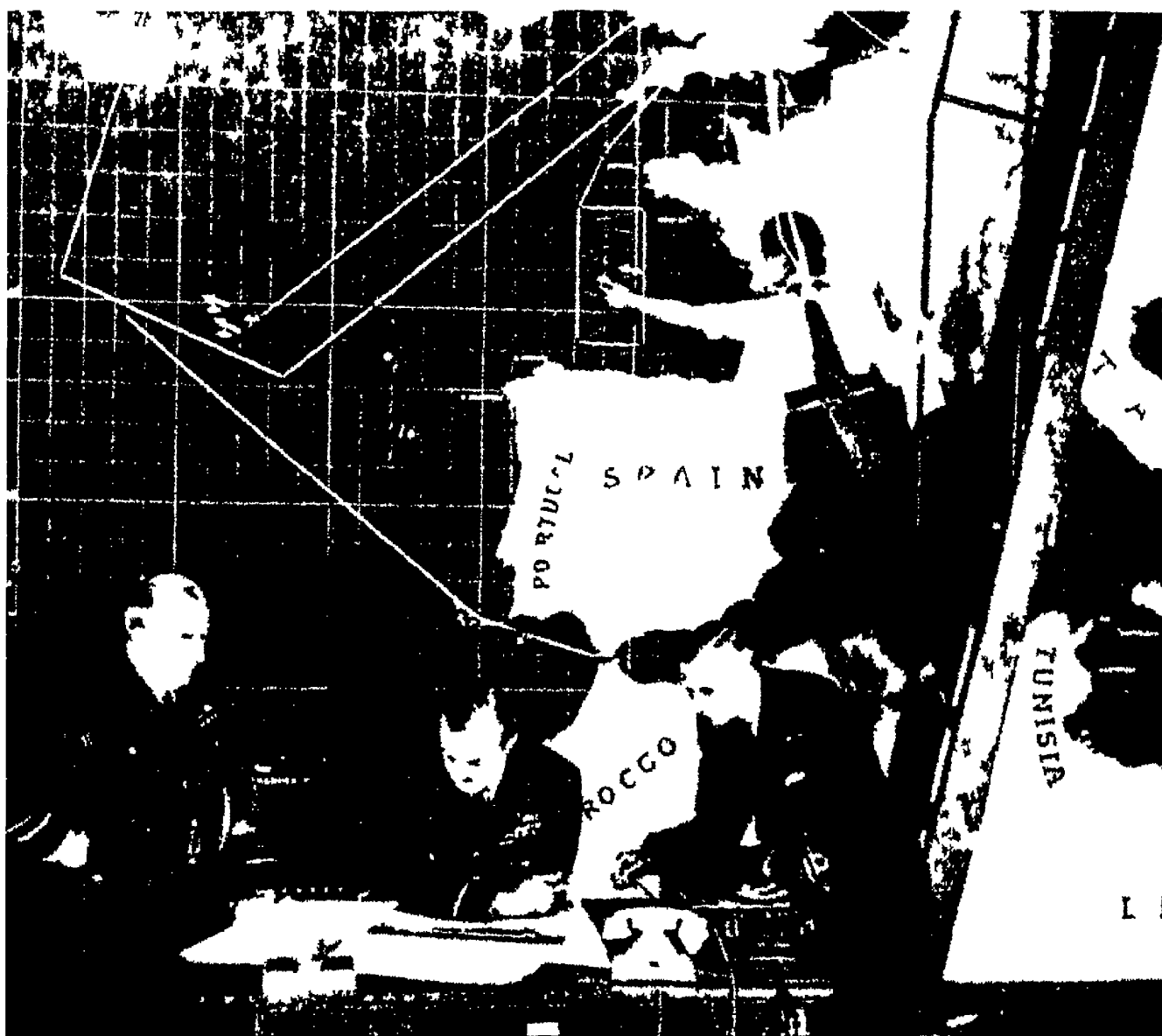
new, for it was but an improvement on the close blitz tactics used by the Luftwaffe when working with the German army in western Europe in 1940. The innovation lay, not in the exploitation of close-support air power, but in the application over and above that of the distant support of the strategical air force—something the Germans had not done, for their whole air force was subordinated to the army.

The strategic application of air power requires a different kind of Intelligence branch from that demanded for tactical close support. The latter conforms to army field requirements, and much can be achieved by army reconnaissance units and air reconnaissance. The former demands a different kind

**Tactical
Air Force
Developed**



MEDITERRANEAN AIR COMMAND
Air Vice-Marshal Sir Arthur Coningham, C-in-C. Mediterranean Air Command, is seen here with other members of his staff. The photograph shows a group of men in military uniforms standing in front of a large, dark, rectangular structure, possibly a tent or a large vehicle. The men are wearing hats and are looking towards the camera. The structure has some text on it, but it is difficult to read. The overall scene is outdoors, and the lighting is somewhat dim.



PLOTTING THE AIR BATTLE OF THE SEAS

Members of the W A A F whose duty it was to plot the Air Battle of the Seas on a huge map 30 ft high by 30 ft wide at Coastal Command Operations Headquarters wore a safety harness attached to a wire working on friction pulleys so that they could move about the map quickly enough to keep up with the rapid changes. In the foreground Air Vice-Marshal A Durston, Senior Air Staff Officer, Air Marshal Sir John C Slessor C-in-C Coastal Command, and Capt D V Peyton Ward Senior Naval Staff Officer.

Photo Topical

of knowledge, that of the intentions of the enemy supreme command in regard to men, material, labour and transport services on the home fronts, and lines of communication, and a

shrewd estimation of that command's intentions regarding the reinforcement of any particular front.

The object of such a strategical air force is to save all branches of one's

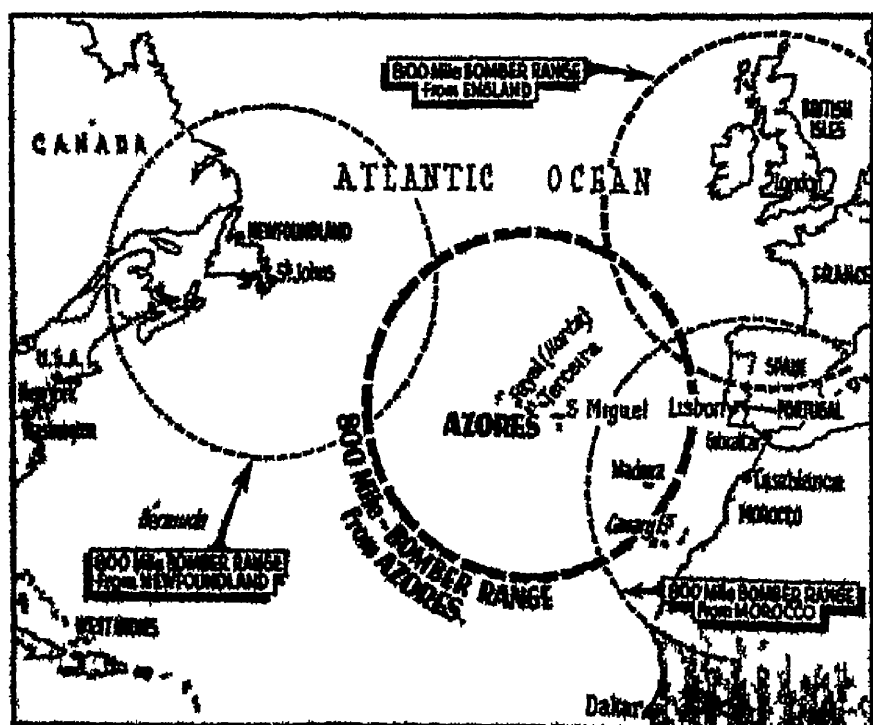
fighting services and the munitions, manpower, and communication and supply services from preventable strain. It is a weapon which blunts the enemy's sword before it can be brought into use. And the modern strategical air force is so flexible that it can be quickly deflected to assist the tactical air force to deliver a stronger close support air attack.

This conception of the employment of air forces was fully developed in 1943, was later applied in the South East Asia Command, and served as the model for the organization of the United Kingdom invasion air forces for 1944.

The aircraft based in the United Kingdom during 1943 were flown by personnel of almost all the Allies. Principal among them were the R A F and U S A A F Commands. During the year Bomber Command and Fighter Command expanded, Coastal Command, having received priorities in earlier years to play its vital part in surmounting the peril of the submarine war, required less of the nation's flow of air war material. Towards the close of the year Bomber Command was receiving the maximum priorities, and increasing its strength relative to other Commands at home and overseas—and the weight of attack against the European fortress grew even greater.

Coastal Command

Air Vice-Marshal Sir John Slessor took over Coastal Command from Sir Philip Joubert on February 4. Coastal Command harassed enemy shipping off the Dutch and Norwegian coasts, sinking at least 18 merchant vessels during the year, and damaging more than 20, together with many of their escort



COASTAL COMMAND IN THE AZORES

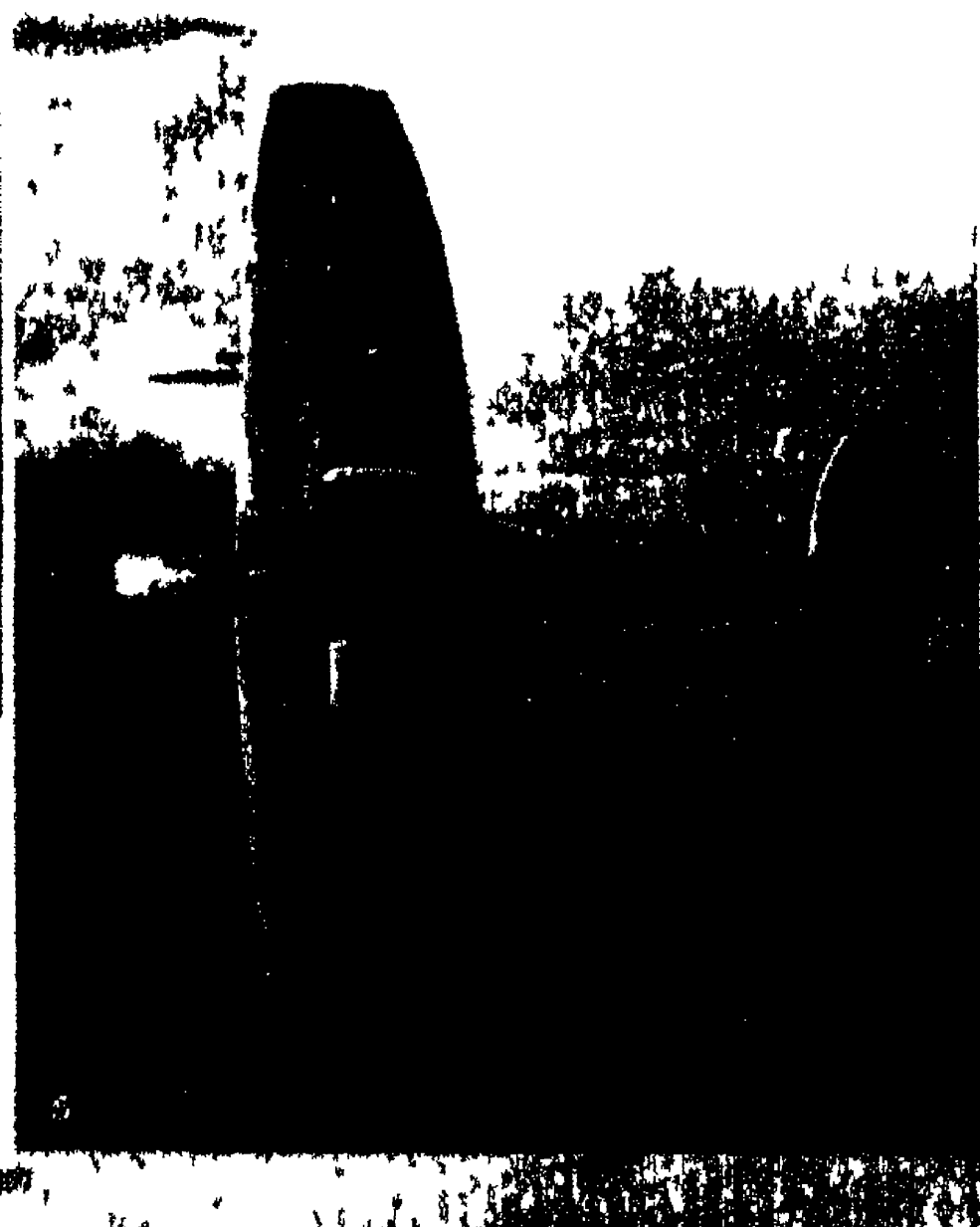
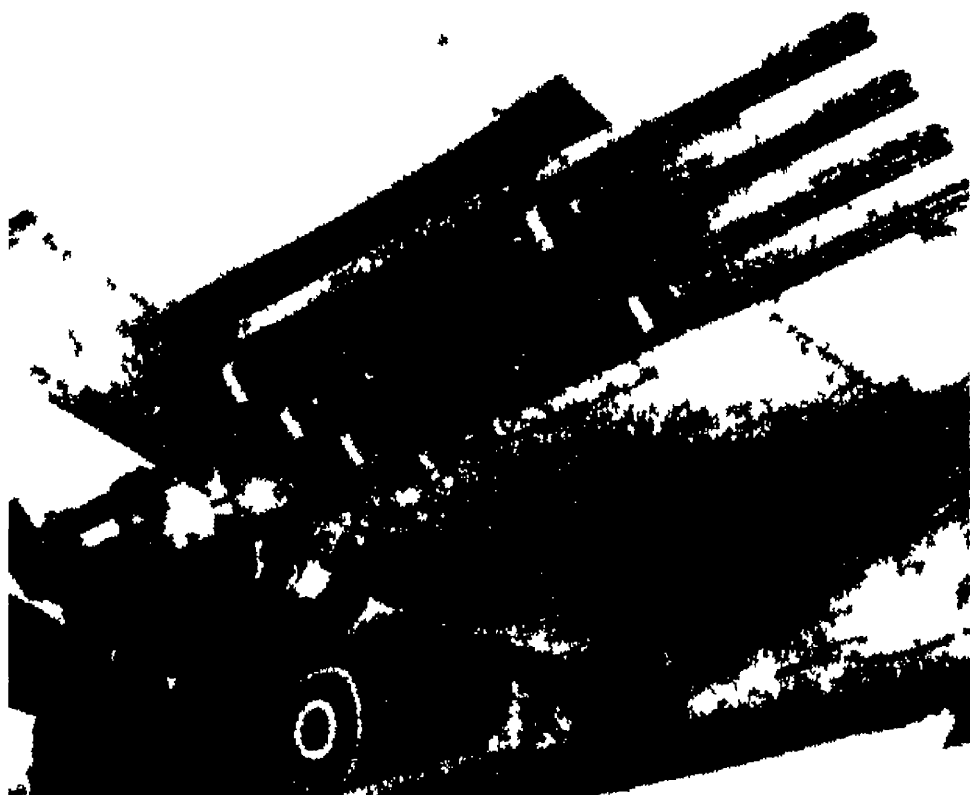
From October 12, 1943, naval, military, and air units (including the R A F Regiment), under the command of Air Vice-Marshal G. R. Bromet, C.B., C.B.E., D.S.O., were responsible for the Azores offensive which within a fortnight resulted in the sinking of a U-boat by a R A F Fortress. Right, drums of petrol for Allied aircraft based on the Azores.

2656





In 1943 rocket bombs were added to the formidable armoury of the Allied air forces. Typhoons, Hurricanes, Beaufighters and Swordfish were equipped for their use. Here two of its eight rocket bombs can be seen flying ahead of a Beaufighter of R.A.F. Coastal Command, which has fired them in an attack on enemy shipping.



NEW ARMS AND CRAFT FOR ALLIED AIR FORCES

1. Loading rocket bombs into the guide rails beneath the wing of a Beaufighter. Four rockets fit under each wing; they can be fired in pairs (as in 2), or in a salvo of eight (see page 2659). 3. Preparing a Mustang P-51 long range fighter for a mission: an armorer loads one of its eight .50 calibre machine-guns while the 1,500 h.p. Rolls-Royce Merlin engine is examined. The Mustang has a combat radius of 450 miles, a speed of 400 m.p.h., and can fly at an altitude of 35,000 ft. 4. British Hawker Typhoon intruder-bomber in flight, its two 500-lb bombs in position; it has an armament of four 20-mm cannon or twelve .503 machine-guns, and is also adapted for rockets. 5. Clipped wing Mark XII Spitfire, fitted with a Rolls-Royce Griffon engine—25 per cent greater in cylinder capacity than the Rolls-Royce Merlin.



Fit-Sergt. A. L. AARON

He won the V.C. for devotion to duty 'seldom equalled and never surpassed' when, though fatally wounded in an attack on Turin on August 12, 1943, he directed his aircraft safely to Bône aerodrome in North Africa. He was in the R.A.F.V.R. (see page 2661).

Photos, "Daily Mirror"; New Zealand Govt.



Flying-Officer L. A. TRIGG

Posthumously awarded the V.C. for outstanding service in anti-U-boat duties, F/O. Trigg, R.N.Z.A.F., was the first pilot on anti-submarine patrol to receive the award. An account of his Liberator's last fight with a U-boat in August 1943 is given in page 2661.

tection against aircraft.

The U-boat pack method of convoy attack rose to its height in 1943. From April 29 to May 6 submarines estimated at 25 in number attacked a west-bound Atlantic convoy by day and night. Four U-boats were destroyed and six probably destroyed. During ten days in May Coastal Command sank five U-boats, one west and one south of Iceland, one in northern waters, and two in the Bay of Biscay approaches. As the year wore on submarines

Army Co-operation Command, merged into a tactical air force designed to work with the army in the field, was contained within the framework of Fighter Command under Air Marshal Sir Trafford Leigh-Mallory (see illus., p. 2405). Squadrons of medium bombers thus came under the control of the Air Officer commanding Fighter Command, and increasing numbers of fighter bombers were adapted from purely fighter squadrons. This was part of the logical process of the change from the defensive to the offensive, for the bomb is still the principal offensive weapon in the air, whereas the fighter *qua* fighter is mainly a defensive machine. Nevertheless, the development of the cannon-gun and the use of the half-inch machine-gun had made fighters potent attackers of small water-borne craft, and railway and road transport vehicles. Fighter Command began a systematic attack on the German-controlled railway system in western Europe by employing cannon-firing fighters to shoot up locomotives. These attacks had a growing effect on the European railway system, forcing the Germans to use more and more road transport, which they could ill afford to divert from the Russian front.

The Typhoon fighter-bomber with four cannon-guns, the Mustang (see illus., p. 2657 and following p. 2266) with its eight machine-guns, the clipped-

vessels. Its anti-submarine organization included squadrons of the R.A.F., U.S. Army and Navy, Australian, Canadian and New Zealand Air Forces, and Czech, Norwegian and Polish units. More than 30 million miles were flown by the Command in 1943 in over 40,000 sorties—more than 760 miles per sortie, and more than 100 sorties a day. During 1943 more U-boats were destroyed by Coastal Command than during the whole of the period from September 1939 to the end of 1942.

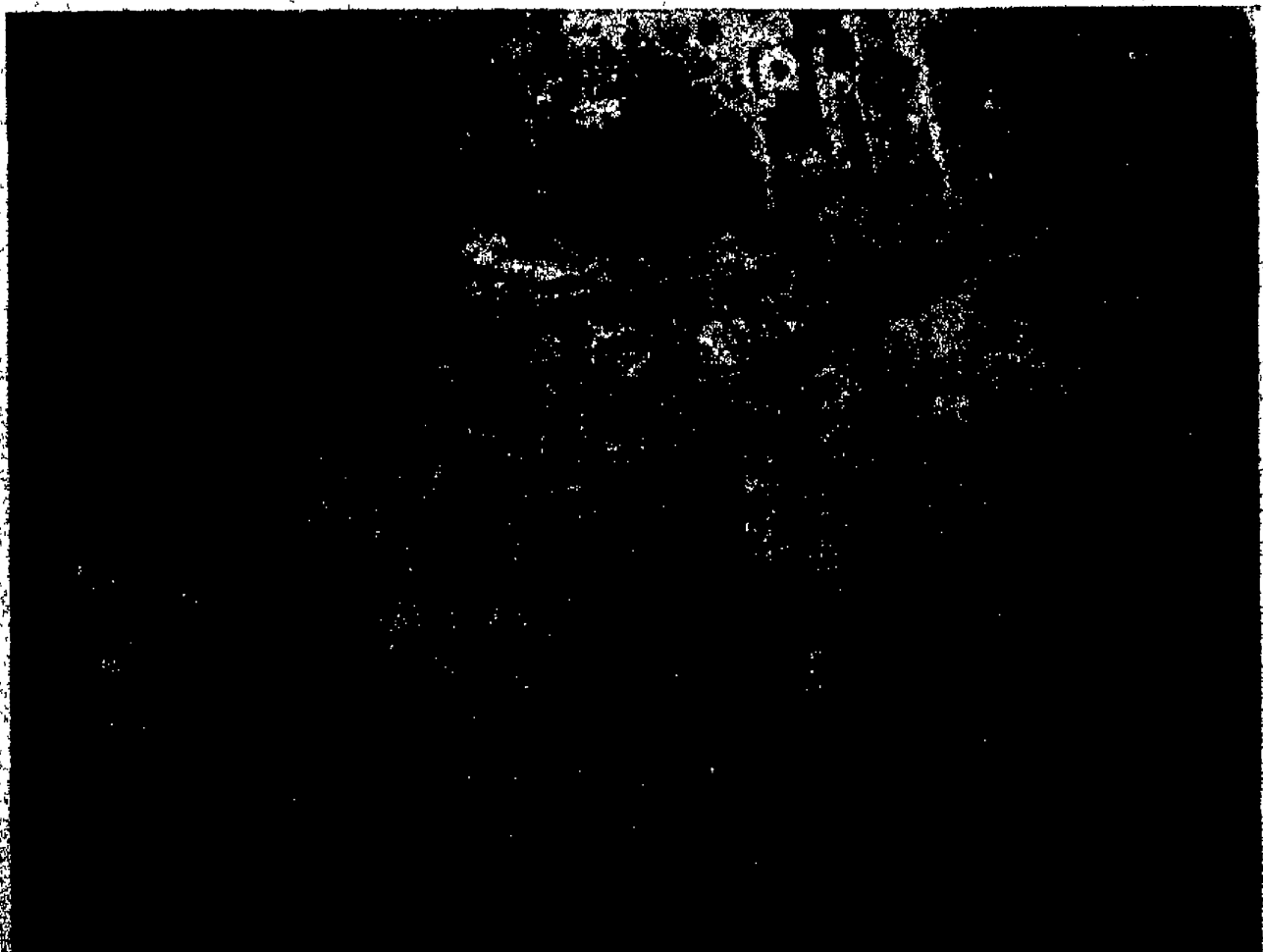
The Command's power over the Atlantic was greatly increased after the agreement with Portugal whereby from October 12, 1943, Allied aircraft were based in the Azores. By the close of the year, operating from the United Kingdom, the Azores, Gibraltar and Iceland, Coastal Command succeeded, in co-operation with the R.C.A.F. in Newfoundland and patrols from the U.S.A., in covering the whole of the North Atlantic by shore-based aircraft—a development due in part to the introduction of long-range Liberator aircraft.

To the extent of the U-boat operations, the Command's operations at sea were limited to the extent of the U-boat operations.

were sunk faster than they could be replaced and manned by the enemy.

Fighter Command

Fighter Command organization was modified on June 13, 1943, when the



CREW OF A BOMBING RUN ON BREMEN UNDER RESEARCH STATION

The crew of a bombing run on Bremen under research station. The crew of a bombing run on Bremen under research station. The crew of a bombing run on Bremen under research station.

winged Spitfire Vb and XII (the latter with Rolls-Royce Griffon engine, reinforced the Hurricane fighter-bomber for low level attack, while the Mosquito fighter-bomber introduced another deadly high-speed twin-engined aircraft into the Beaufighter's role. (See illus. following page 2646.)

In June 1943 rocket bombs, officially called unrotating projectiles, were introduced into the attack on Europe. and Hurricanes, Typhoons, Beaufighters and Swordfish were all equipped with them. Essentially weapons for low and close attack, rocket bombs were used mainly in attacking the smaller classes of vessels, but German army headquarters buildings, radar stations and railways were also singled out for this form of attack. Small ship draught is too shallow for ordinary torpedo attack, but the rocket soon proved superior to the skip-bomb or cannon-gun form of attack against them. Four rockets are carried under each wing; they can be fired in pairs, one from each wing, or in one salvo of eight. Their cordite propellant is electrically ignited by a small platinum fuse wire when the pilot presses the small firing button. Their discharge shock is taken by the air and the aircraft does not feel the recoil as it does when firing the cannon-gun. The rockets are aimed by sighting with the ordinary gunsight, but allowance has to be made for the slightly more curved drop of the rocket compared with the higher velocity shell or bullet.

Swarming into the western European skies like gnats, all these aircraft harried the Dutch, Belgian and French coasts and hinterland, stinging the whole enemy system of defence and communication. And during 1943 Fighter Command sorties rose to over a thousand a day, a scale of attack at least twice as heavy as that of the Luftwaffe during the Battle of Britain.

Bomber Command

Bomber Command entered 1943 with an increased number of four-engined heavy bombers and a highly trained Pathfinder Force able to reach any target in any weather by night and mark it out with flares of distinctive colours. It became possible to concentrate large forces of four-engined bombers upon urban areas. The force of more than a thousand bombers which attacked Cologne on May 24, 1943, took 20 minutes to drop their 1,400 tons of bombs on the city. The force of 1,000 bombers which attacked Hamburg on July 25, 1943, took 20 minutes to drop their 1,400 tons of bombs on the city. The force of 1,000 bombers which attacked Berlin on August 22, 1943, took 20 minutes to drop their 1,400 tons of bombs on the city. The force of 1,000 bombers which attacked Berlin on August 22, 1943, took 20 minutes to drop their 1,400 tons of bombs on the city.



R.A.F. ATTACKS DAMS IN THE RUHR VALLEY

Among the most striking of the feats performed by Bomber Command during 1943 was the breaching of the Moeche and Eder dams on May 17 by a specially trained squadron led by Wing-Commander G. P. Gibson (right), who gained the V.C. for his leadership in this exploit (see page 2660). Above: The Moeche dam before the assault and, below, after the attacking Lancasters had done their work: note how the water level above the dam has fallen, and the walls of the reservoir below it have been swept away by the force of escaping waters.

Photos, British Official; "New York Times"



including the daylight raid of the U.S. Army Eighth Air Force which made its first attack on Germany when it bombed Wilhelmshaven on January 27, 1943, will be dealt with in a later Chapter, but a brief reference must be made to it here. During 1943 nine of Germany's 21 major industrial cities with over 250,000 population were so seriously devastated that they were forced to consume more than they could produce. A number of lesser cities—such as Kassel and Munster Rhenish—with populations of 216,000 and 200,000—were reduced to the same condition. Hamburg was attacked with great intensity from July 24 to August 3; in this period 11,000 tons of bombs were dropped on this second largest city in Germany. Its air and ground defences were overcome by the shock, and its port, its shipbuilding and its industries were knocked out.

These attacks produced a shortage of German guns, tanks, aircraft and ammunition, and were a very useful strategic collaboration with the offensive of the Red Army. Aircraft were withdrawn from Russia and the Mediterranean to defend Germany, and before the winter of 1943-44 it was estimated that 50 per cent of Germany's day, and 85 per cent of her night, fighter

strength was concentrated in western Europe.

Munich was raided on January 27, and attacks were made upon the U-boat bases of Lorient and St. Nazaire upon North Italian industry and railways, and upon communications between France and Italy. Mosquito bombers made many daylight attacks on selected targets, including the special one on January 30 when six Mosquitoes raided Berlin just as Reichsmarshal Hermann Goering was due to broadcast from the Air Ministry (Reichsluftfahrtministerium) in Berlin in celebration of the 10th anniversary of Hitler's accession to power. Goering's speech was delayed for about an hour.

No. 617 Squadron was specially formed under the command of Wing Commander G. P. Gibson, D.S.O. and Bar, D.F.C. and Bar, to train secretly for an attack on the Moehne, Eder and Sorpe dams supplying water to German industry, canals, and hydro electric generator stations. Gibson had completed three tours of duty, two as a night bomber pilot, and one as a night fighter pilot, and had flown more than 170 sorties involving over 600 hours of operational flying. The attack on the dams had to be made from a hundred feet or less above the water level. Bright moonlight was shining on the morning of

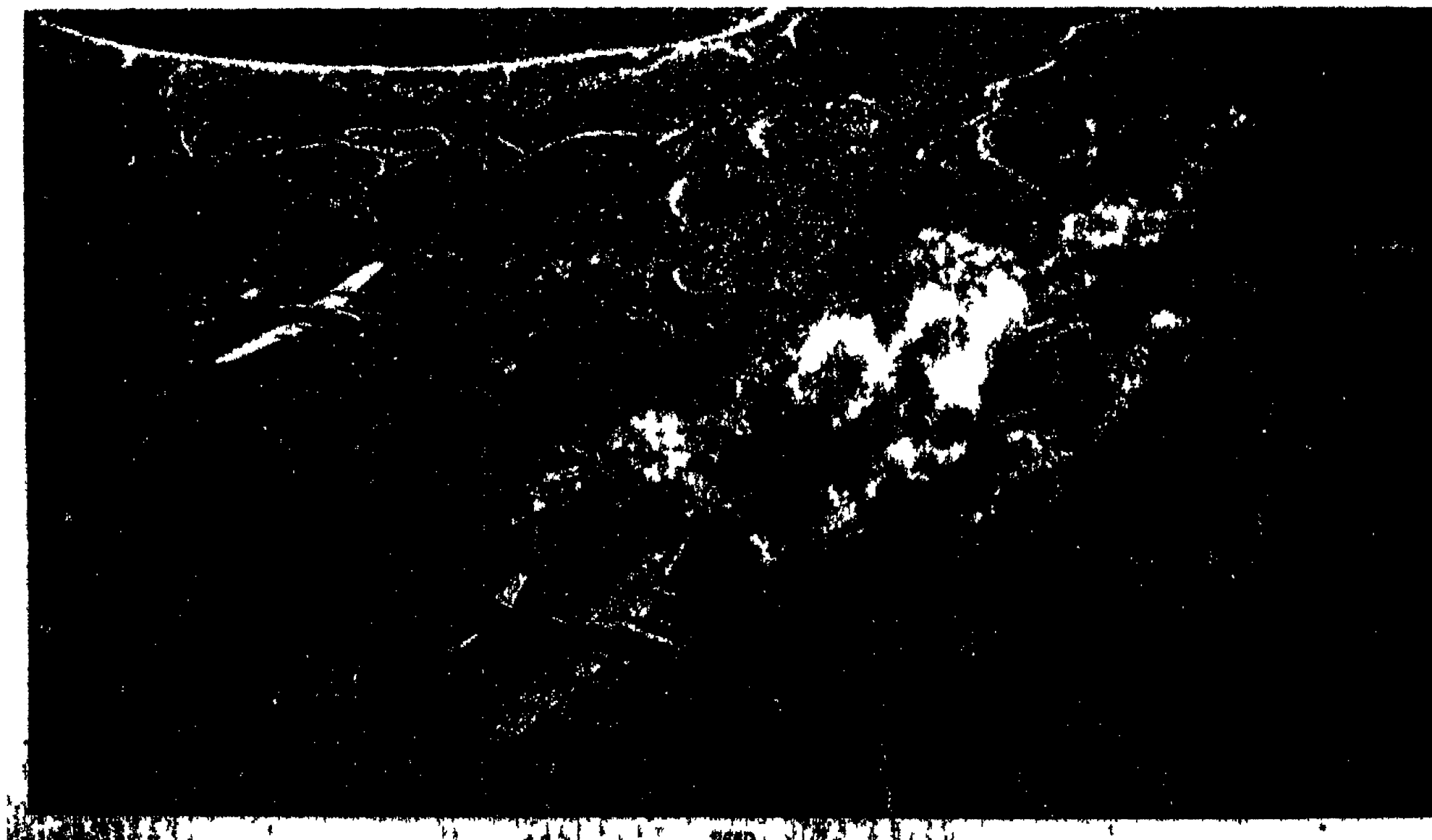
May 17, 1943, when 19 Lancaster bombers carrying special mines began the attack. Gibson made the initial attack on the Moehne dam from a height of a few feet. A flight lieutenant following in another Lancaster saw a spout of water rise to 300 feet. A second Lancaster attacked with the same determination, but still there was no sign of a breach. A third bomber attacked and there was a huge explosion against the dam. The fourth Lancaster's explosives broke the dam and a terrific flood of water burst through its centre. Light anti-aircraft defences were sited in the wall of the dam itself, and after dropping his load Gibson flew up and down the dam to attract the fire away from those who followed him, while his own gunners replied to and partially silenced the German fire. The Moehne dam breached, he led his forces to the Eder dam, which was likewise broken. The Sorpe dam, with its thicker wall of concrete, was not breached. From the first dam 134, and from the second 202, million tons of water broke away to swamp great areas of land, flood factories, railways, power stations and towns. Kassel was inundated. It was a brilliant strategical stroke, a surprise thrust at German industry, superimposed upon the normal method of bomber attack on Germany and western Europe.

Wing Commander Gibson brought 11 Lancasters home, and for his great determination, high valour and leader-

FLYING FORTRESSES BOMB LORIENT U-BOAT BASE IN FRANCE

Lorient port in Brittany from which U-boats issued to harry and destroy Allied shipping in the Atlantic, was the target of a number of attacks by U.S. Army Eighth Air Force during 1943. This photograph, taken from another Fortress, shows the target area enveloped in smoke and two Fortresses leaving after dropping their bombs during an attack on March 6, 1943.

Photo, British Official. Crown Copyright



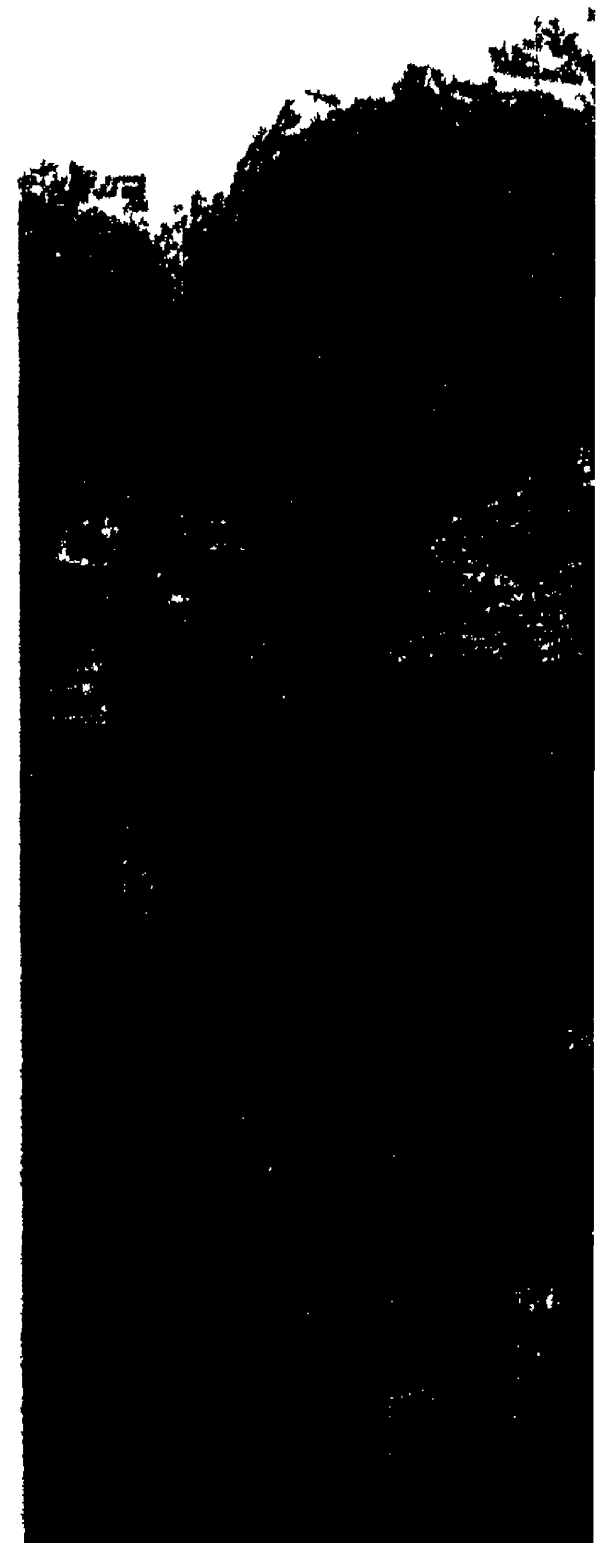


AIR OPERATIONS IN TUNISIA

During the campaign in Tunisia, Arabs helped the R.A.F. in work on the airfields. Here is a bomb train manned by these native workers on its way to a dump. Top, men of an R.A.F. mobile parachute packing unit retrieving a parachute during exercises; their job was to follow up parachute operations, salvage the parachutes, and repack them ready for the next jump. *Photo, British Official*

but the V.C. was awarded to a former member of the R.A.F. who was awarded the V.C. for his actions on the night of August 12, 1943, at the capture of a Stirling bomber which had been shot down by a German fighter. The pilot, who was a member of the 21st (Gold Coast) Squadron, a former V.C. pilot for devotion to duty seldom equaled and never surpassed. Over three times of the four engines were hit the front and rear gun turrets put out of action the navigator killed and other members of the crew wounded. A bullet broke Aaron's jaw and tore away part of his face, he was wounded in the lung and his right arm made useless. He fell forward over the controls. The bomber dived several thousand feet. The flight-engineer got it under control at 3,000 feet. Unable to speak, Aaron signed to his bomb-aimer to take over and set course for North Africa. Aaron was assisted to the rear of the aircraft and given morphine. He rallied and insisted on returning to the controls. He was lifted into his seat and had his feet placed in position. Twice he attempted to take control but was too weak, but he continued to help by writing directions with his left hand. They reached Bone and landed after four attempts made under Aaron's direction. Nine hours later Aaron died from exhaustion.

The fourth Bomber Command V.C. won in 1943 and awarded to Flight-Lieut W. Reid, will be dealt with in the Chapter on the attack on German industry. Another Victoria Cross—the 16th air Victoria Cross of the war—was awarded on November 3 to Flying-Officer L. A. Trigg, D.F.C., R.N.Z.A.F., of Houhora, New Zealand, No. 200 Squadron, for outstanding service on convoy escort and anti-U-boat duties, in which he had made 46 operational sorties. This was the first V.C. awarded to a pilot engaged on anti-submarine patrol. In the previous August, after an eight hours' search over the Atlantic, Trigg's Liberator sighted a surfaced U-boat and dived to attack. The Liberator, hit repeatedly by the submarine's A.A. guns, burst into flames. It was a critical moment. By continuing to dive, the Liberator presented a no-deflection target to deadly and accurate gunfire with flames simul-



BOMBS ON MARETH LINE

The Western Desert Air Force began its assault on the Mareth Line in Tunisia on March 19, 1943, just ahead of the Eighth Army's attack. Relay bombing against German concentrations was an important element in weakening the Axis defense. This light bomber of the South African Air Force is coming in to bomb a German concentration in the Mareth area. *Photo, British Official*



ENEMY GLIDER TAKES OFF

Until his airfields were captured by the advancing Allied armies, the enemy made considerable use of gliders during the North African campaign. Here is a DFS-230 glider, in tow behind a Junkers 87, taking off from a desert landing ground.

Photo, British Official

taneously increasing in the aircraft and diminishing the chances of survival. Trigg could have landed in the sea, but he maintained his course and skimmed 50 feet above the U-boat. A.A. fire entered the open bomb doors of the Liberator, whose bombs fell on and around the U-boat and exploded with devastating effect. The doomed Liberator flew on a short distance before falling into the sea. The stricken U-boat sank within 20 minutes, and some of her crew were later picked up by a rubber dingy that had broken away from the Liberator. The air crew were rescued by a command of British commandos. The Liberator was damaged by a direct hit from a 4.2 inch mortar shell.

Operations in Africa

The year 1943 opened with the Eighth Army at Buerat, 240 miles east of Tripoli, with the Western Desert Air Force smashing at the enemy, weakening still further his air and surface forces. The Luftwaffe scarcely interfered with the Eighth Army, so effective was its fighter cover. General Montgomery evaluated air power thus: "You must win the air battle before you fight the land or sea battle." And he said: "... from Alamein through Tunisia, Sicily and Italy you will find that we never fought a land battle until the air battle was won." By January 14, 1943, Rommel was in full retreat from Buerat with the Desert Air Force pounding his transport columns, panzer units, infantry and bases. Tripoli was occupied on January 23, less than three months after the opening of the El Alamein battle. A fortnight later the last enemy soldier was swept out of the Italian African Empire, and fighting in North Africa then concentrated in the French territory of Tunisia. There the Eighth Army formed part of the 18th Army Group, with its strategy controlled from Algiers and not from Cairo.

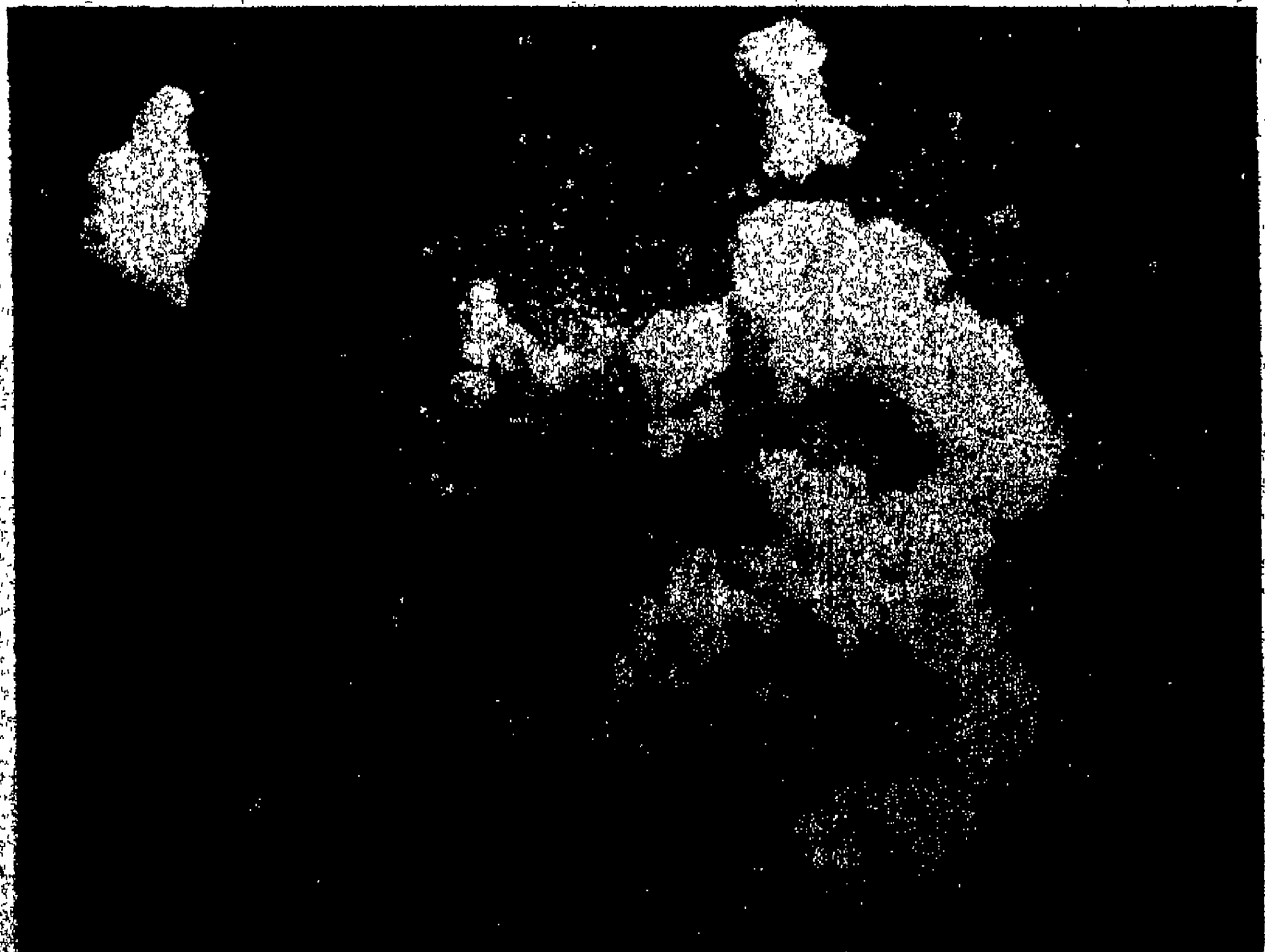
One important gain of the Allied advance in Libya was the relief of Malta on November 26, 1942. In 1943 Malta was able to hit back hard and became an advanced air base for intruders and bombers, which specialized in destroying trains and rolling stock in Sicily and

Italy, in sinking supply ships, and in striking against Tunisia and Sardinia.

In mid-February the Germans were thrusting heavily against the American troops in Tunisia and forcing them back with superior air and ground forces—for the 300 first-line aircraft possessed by the Axis in Tunisia, when concentrated, could give them local air superiority, due to the Allies' lack of forward fighter airfields. The Americans were forced back through the Kasserine Pass. Then the air forces under Tedder's control were swiftly concentrated. For six days from February 19 they lashed the enemy troop concentration. Air aid for the Allied Army reached a scale not seen in Africa since the Battle of El Alamein. The enemy retreat began.

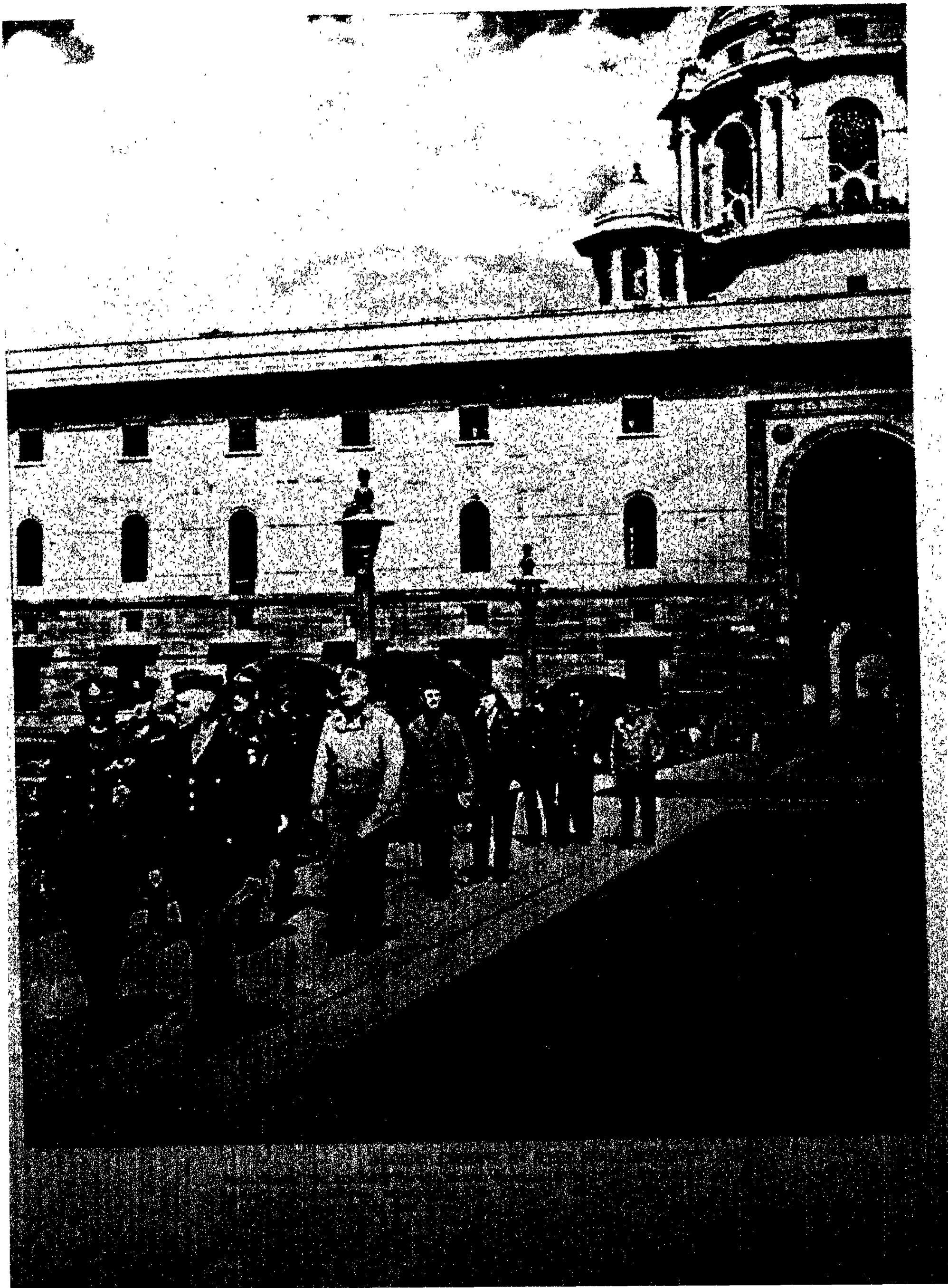
Shortly afterwards the air forces under Tedder were divided into a strategical and a tactical force, and the new conception of the use of air power was applied to provide immediate tactical aid to the surface forces in the field, with the simultaneous strategic disruption of distant enemy supplies intended for the battle zone, and the softening of the enemy zones into which it was planned that the Allied armies should advance.

Preceded and accompanied by fighter bomber attacks from Malta against Sicily, heavy bomber attacks against the ports of Bizerta, La Goulette, Tunis and Susa, air blows at enemy airfields



THIS AREA SOFTLY ROASTED FROM THE AIR

The area shown in this photograph was heavily bombed by the Allied forces in the North African campaign. The image shows a large, dark, and dense cloud of smoke or fire rising from the ground, indicating a significant explosion or fire.

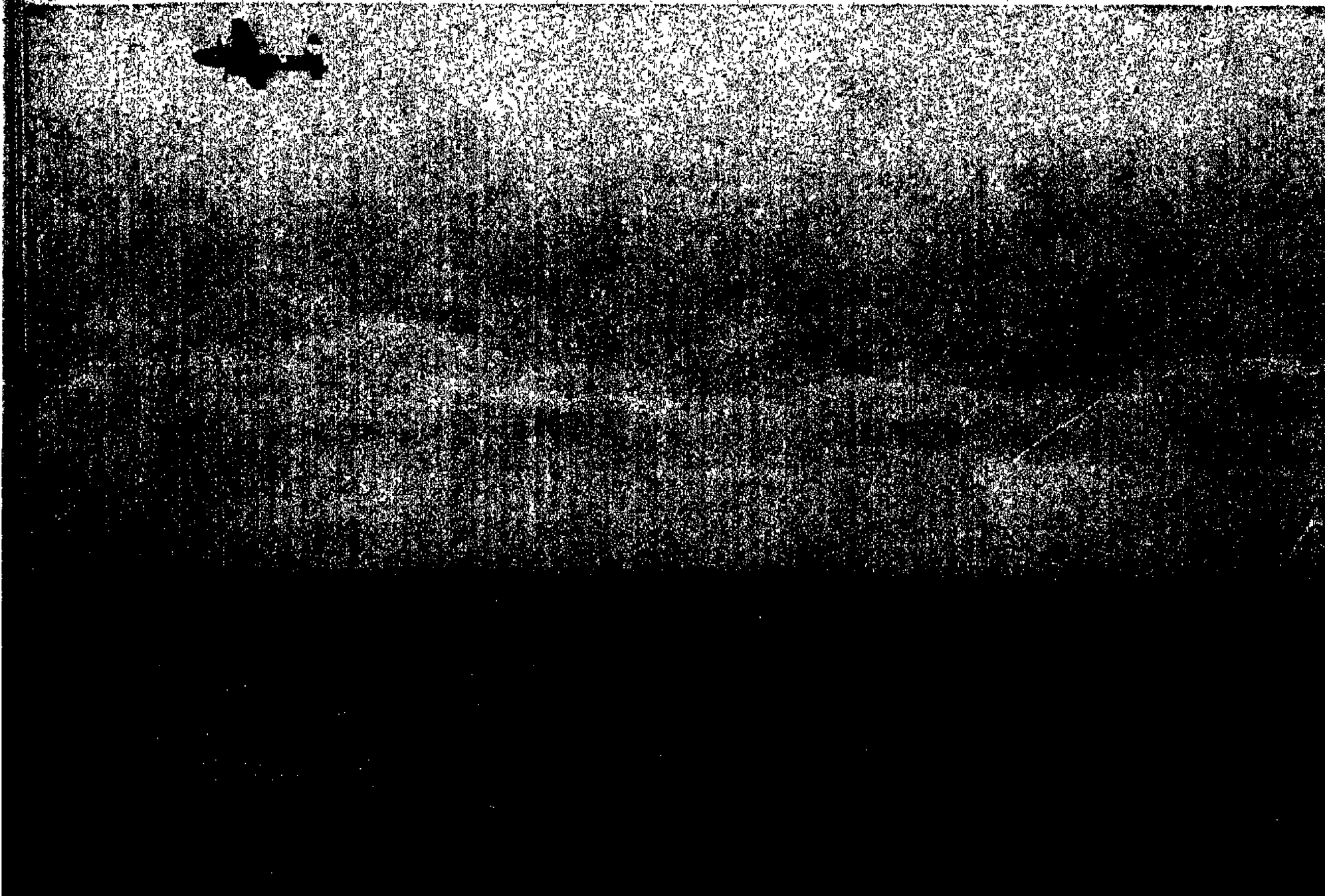




DEVASTATING ATTACKS BY ALLIED AIR FORCES IN TUNISIAN CAMPAIGN

Hangars at El Aquina airfield, near Tunis (above), wrecked by Allied bombing. Below : Part of an Axis air convoy of 35 Junkers-52 transports; 31 of which were shot down in the Sicilian narrows by Mitchells and Lightnings of the North-West African Air Force on April 22, 1943. In this remarkable action photograph, the wing of one American plane, just pulling away after attack, is seen on the right, while another roars overhead. Cannon-gun fire throws up heavy splashes all round the Axis transport just above the water to the left of the photograph.

Photos, British Official : Crown Copyright ; Associated Press



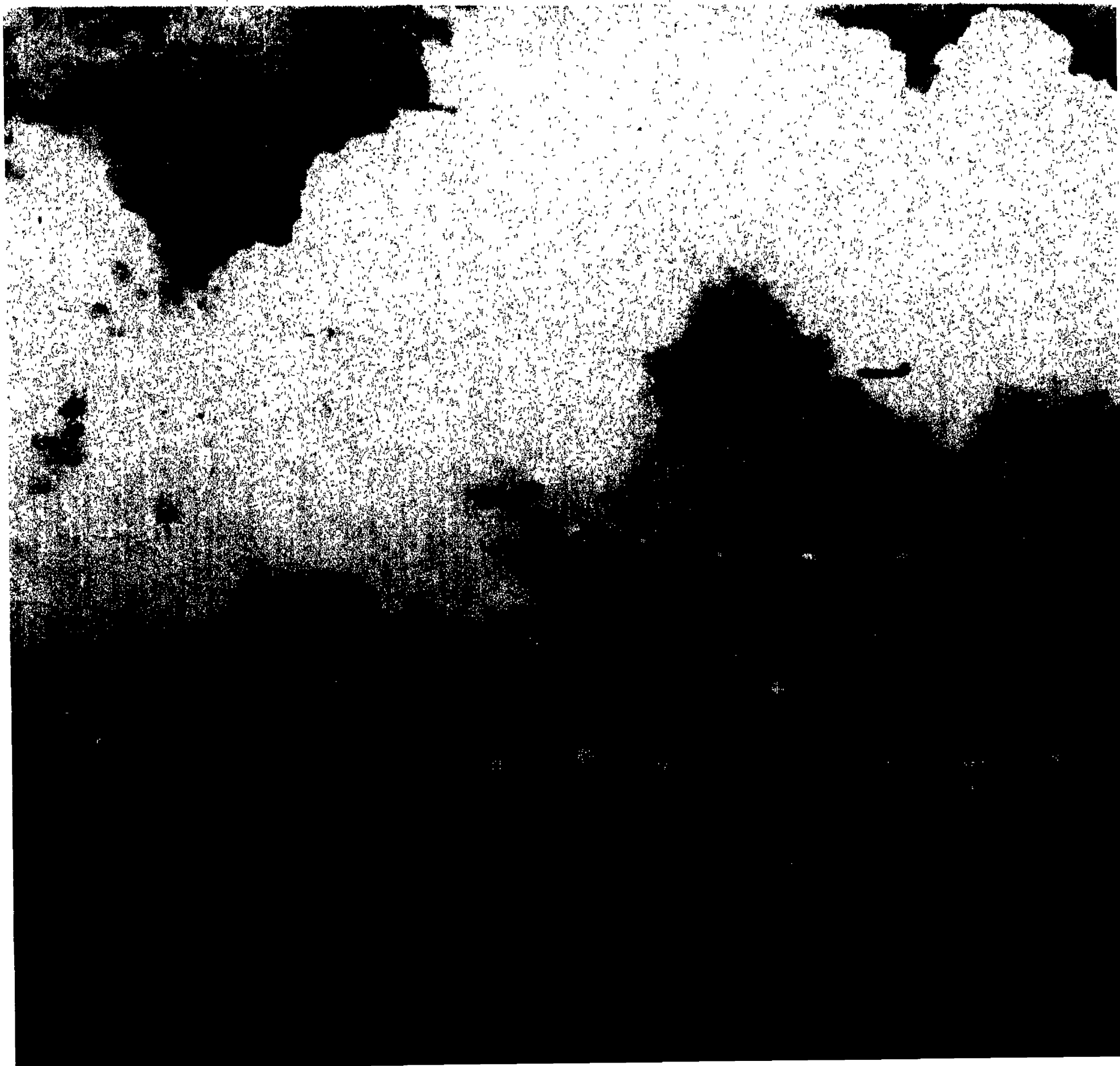


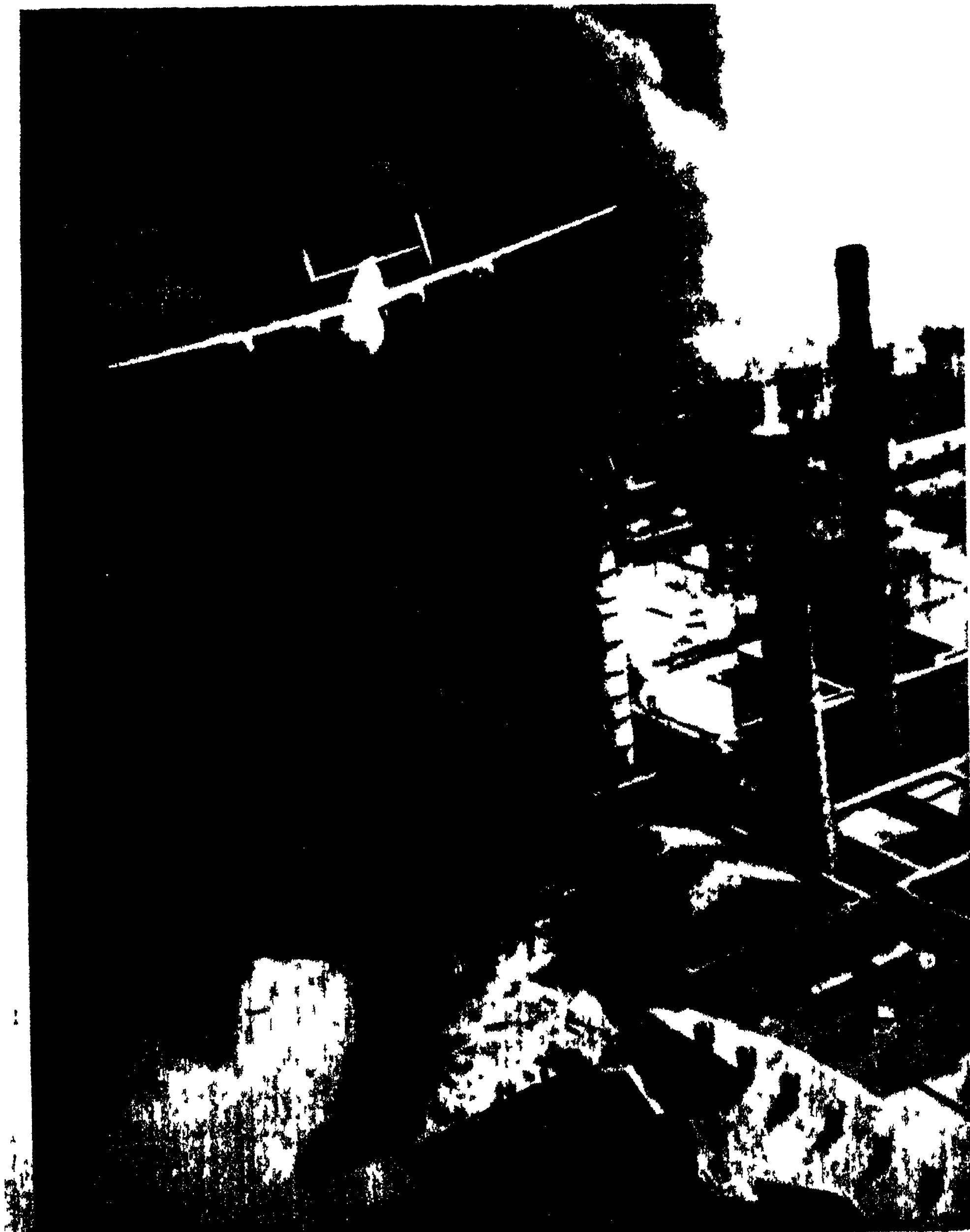
AMERICAN AIR POWER IN THE SOUTH-WEST PACIFIC

These Corsair fighters, on a Bougainville Island airfield, escorted American bombers in a heavy raid on Rabaul on November 5, 1943—the ninth major raid on that port since October 11. U.S. Army parachutists were used extensively in the S.W. Pacific zone for the first time, during the operations which led to the capture of Lae (see Chapter 276). Boston bombers laid a smoke screen; then the transport planes came in (below), and the parachute troops jumped, under cover of the smoke, from a lower altitude than they had attempted to use before in battle.

Photos, U.S. Official; Associated Press

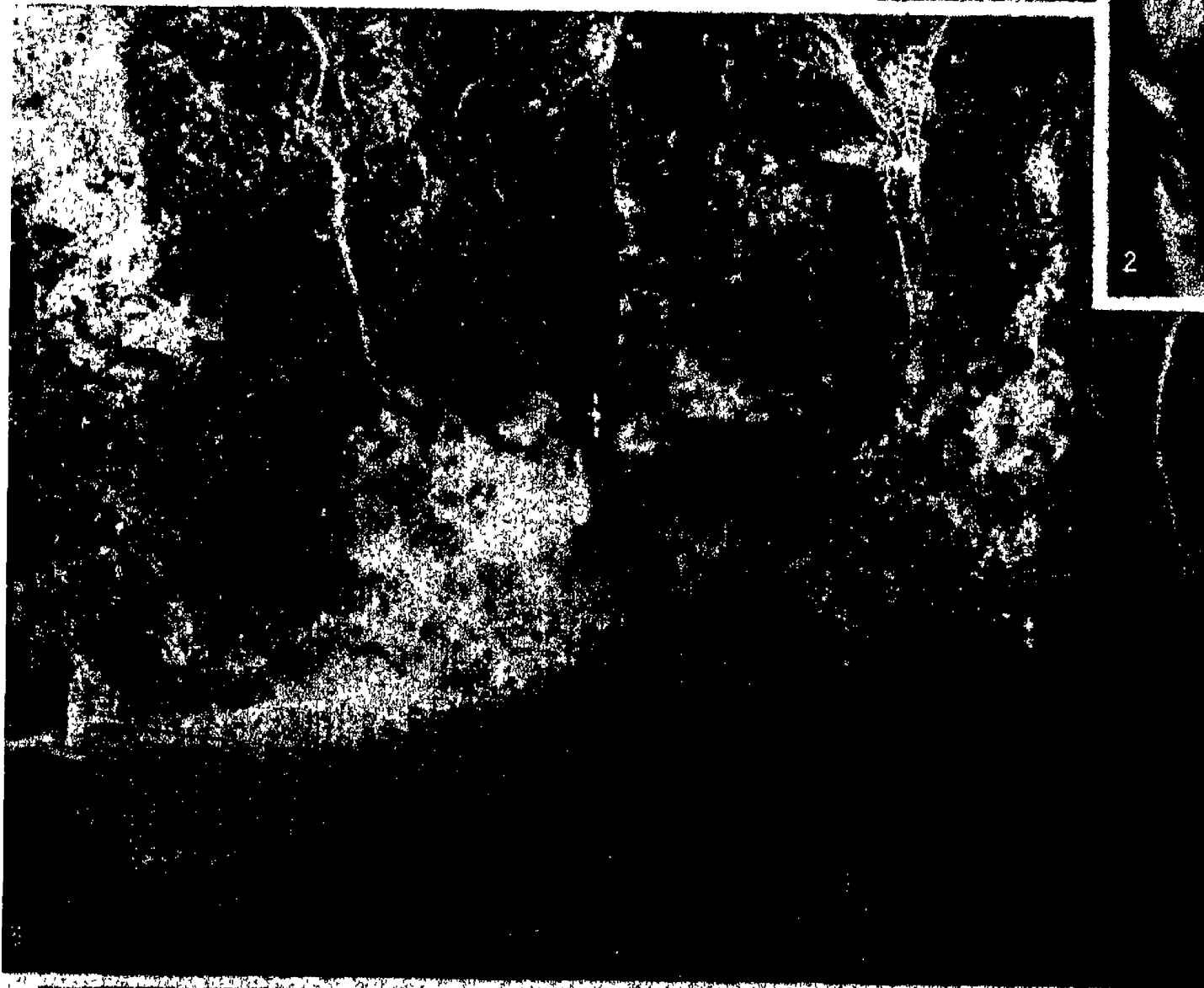
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US BOMBERS BOMB RUMANIAN OILFIELDS

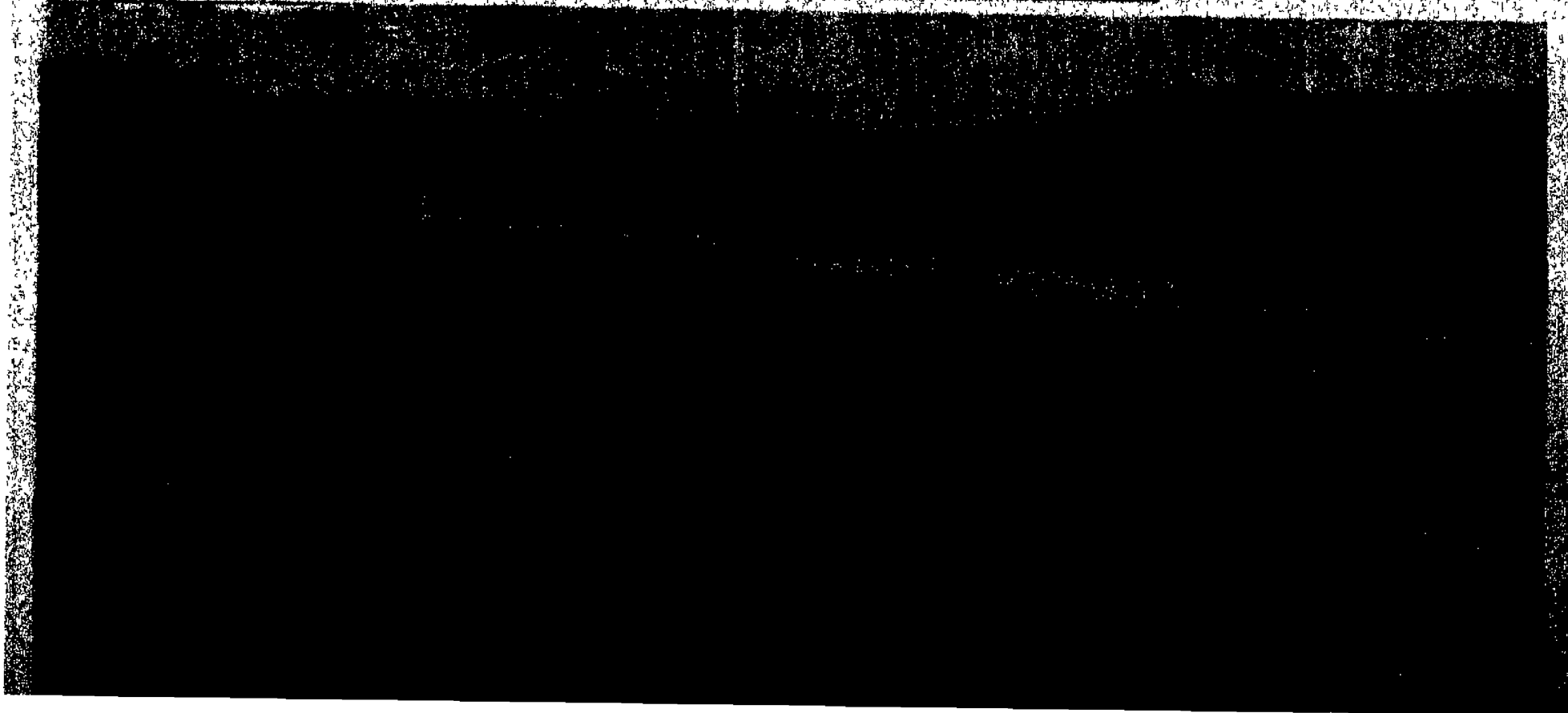
US B-24 bombers of the 88th Bombardment Group, 8th Air Force, dropped 270 tons of bombs on the Ploesti oil refineries in Rumania, the first of a series of attacks on the vital oil supply of the Axis. The bombers, which were escorted by fighters, dropped 270 tons of bombs on the Ploesti oil refineries in Rumania, the first of a series of attacks on the vital oil supply of the Axis. The bombers, which were escorted by fighters, dropped 270 tons of bombs on the Ploesti oil refineries in Rumania, the first of a series of attacks on the vital oil supply of the Axis.



AIR WAR IN SICILY

1. Loading a 'jeep' on to a British glider ready for transport to Sicily: the glider-nose could be raised as shown to give free entry to the fuselage of the craft. 2. British and American parachute troops were landed in Sicily during the night of July 9-10, 1943, prior to the landings from the sea early on July 10. Here are American parachutists on their way. 3. Flying Fortress attacking Axis military installations at Messina shortly before the Sicilian campaign ended on August 17. 4. Refuelling an American fighter in Sicily with petrol brought ashore by one of the amphibious DUKW trucks, nicknamed 'ducks' by the Allied troops.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Photos News: "New York Times" Photos

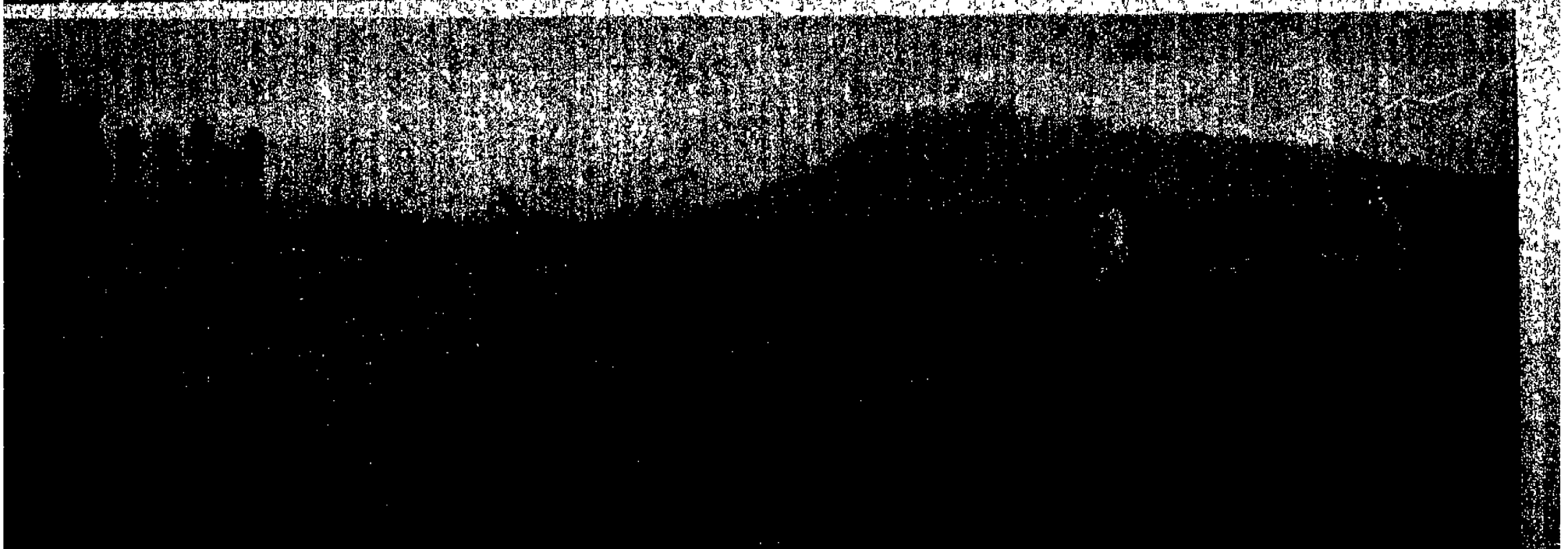




ALLIES OCCUPY ITALIAN AIRFIELDS

1. Seafire preparing to land on the aircraft carrier H.M.S. 'Hunter' during the operations off Salerno, which began with an Allied landing on September 9, 1943.
2. Men of the R.A.F. examining bombs abandoned near a wrecked train at the airfield of Taranto, occupied without opposition on September 9.
3. Army levelling machine, under the nose of a Spitfire, clearing Reggio airfield after its capture by the Allies on September 3.
4. R.A.F. fighters preparing to operate from an airfield near Naples.

Photos, British Official ; Crown Copyright



to maintain adequate air coverage, and the islands were lost in October and November. (An account of operations in the Dodecanese is given in a later Chapter.)

By August 12, 1,691 enemy aircraft had been shot down or captured in Sicily, where resistance ceased on August 17. The full air attack was then turned against the Italian mainland. On September 3 British and Canadian troops of the Eighth Army landed at Reggio on the Italian mainland under cover of a strong naval force, and of Spitfires flying from Sicilian airfields; and on the same day Italy surrendered unconditionally to air power with the immediate threat of the Army behind it. On September 9, British and U.S. troops of the Fifth Army landed at Salerno, 200 miles from the nearest Allied airfields and almost outside range of shore-based fighter cover.

By using long-range fighters it was possible to keep about 50 fighters constantly over the beaches. Short-range fighter cover was provided by

Air Cover at Salerno

Seafires from the small aircraft carriers "Attacker," "Battler," "Hunter," "Stalker" and "Unicorn," escorted close inshore by light cruisers and destroyers, and from the large aircraft carriers "Illustrious" and "Formidable" in deep water, covered by the battleships "Nelson" and "Rodney." But the crash rate during the operation of these ship fighters was very high, and this considerable seaborne air fleet flew only about one-seventh of the number of sorties flown by the R.A.F., despite the short range afforded by floating aerodromes.

The landing was successful, and when Field-Marshal Kesselring, commanding the Germans in southern Italy, moved up heavy reinforcements, including tanks, and for a time the issue was in doubt, Tedder turned the combined weight of his tactical and strategic forces on to the battle zone. At the height of the battle almost 2,500 sorties were flown during the 24 hours, and 1,400 tons of bombs were dropped on the German forces on the battlefields and their immediate communications. The key communication town for the Germans, through which the main roads passed, was flattened, and all vehicular traffic, including tanks, ceased before the tumbled masonry that blocked the way.

That air action decided the issue. The Fifth Army entered Naples on October 1, with the support of air cover from behind the Eighth Army, which took Reggio on 13 and Salerno on September 27. This success



PRIMITIVE LABOUR CONSTRUCTS CHINESE AIRFIELDS

300,000 Chinese labourers, using traditional methods of work, helped to build airfields for the use of Allied aircraft in their struggle against the Japanese. Here is a crowd of workers, trundling primitive hand carts or carrying baskets, moving small, specially shaped stones which they laid by hand as foundations for runways. A Liberator bomber has already landed on a completed runway of this airfield under construction.

Photo, Keystone

enabled the strategic air offensive also to be directed against enemy-controlled industries in south Germany, Austria, Hungary and Rumania, and brought the oilfields of Ploesti (first attacked by Liberator bombers of U.S.A. 9th Air Force from the Middle East on August 1) within a range of some 600 miles. (See illus., page 2666.)

When 1943 ended, the Eighth Army was north of the Moro river and the Fifth Army north of the Volturno river, but all air and ground operations had been slowed down by the vicious Italian winter weather.

South-East Asia Command

There was no significant change in the situation in the Burma area. A South-East Asia Command to conduct operations against Japan, based on New Delhi in India, was set up on August 25 with Vice-Admiral Lord Louis Mountbatten as Supreme Allied Commander, S.E. Asia. In the following December Lord Louis issued an order uniting all British and American units into one Allied air force under the command of Air Chief Marshal Sir Richard Peirse. (See illus., page 2654.) Air operations over Burma increased as more squadrons became available, and experience made flying possible during the monsoon season, when it had formerly been considered one of the greatest difficulties.

Other air support was given to the Army in the Arakan and Chindit operations.

such as the Wingate expedition—were maintained by air, either dropped by parachute or, in some cases, carried by transport aircraft which landed on crudely prepared runways. Strategic bombing of ports, shipping and communications increased, as far afield as Bangkok. (See Chapter 270.)

R.A.F., Dominion and Indian squadrons were reinforced by the U.S. Army 10th Air Force with headquarters at Delhi. The transport air service between India and China grew. An extensive network of military air transport services linked Delhi, Bombay, Ceylon and Calcutta. India was strengthened for its role as major air base for the war to the east of the Bay of Bengal. (See Chapter 270.)

Pacific Zone

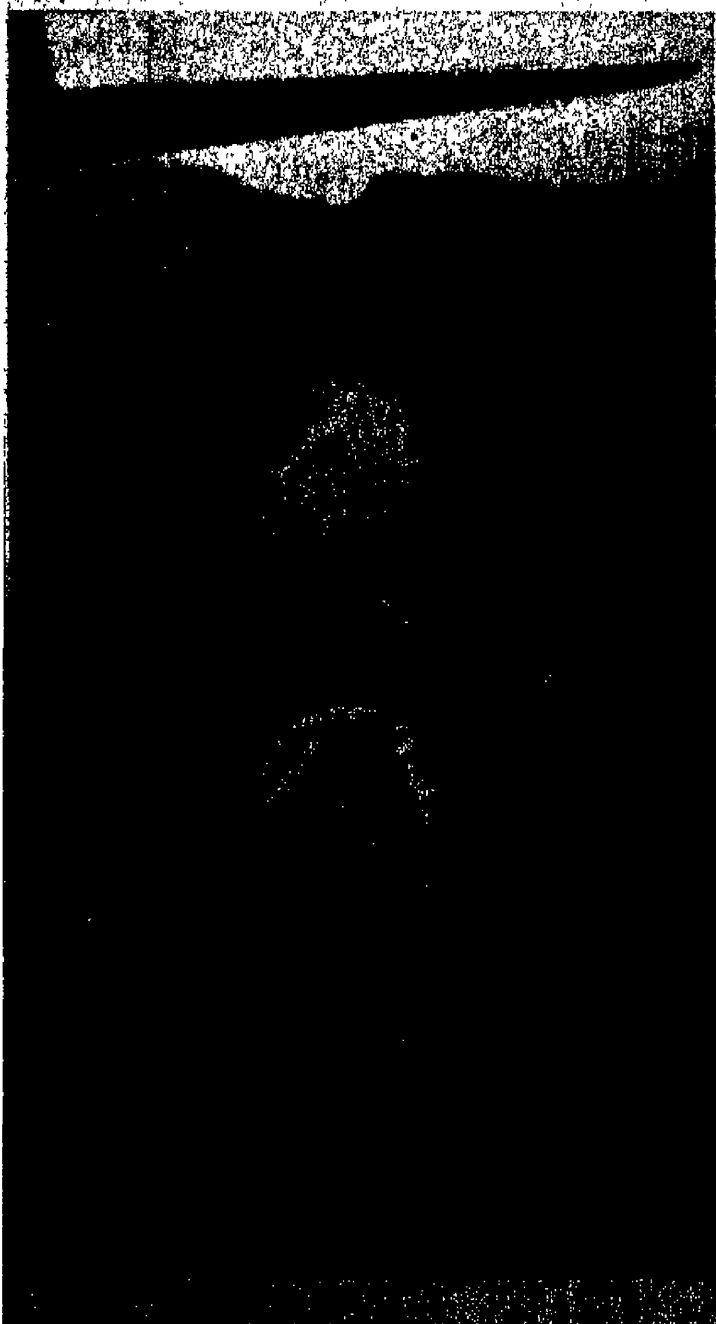
The year opened with American troops established in Guadalcanal in the Solomons with shore-based aircraft in operation. In New Guinea the fight for Salamona and Lae was beginning. The tactics of the Allies throughout this zone were to wrest from the enemy a chain of airfields that would give them air superiority over an area dominating Japanese communications, so that Japanese forces on remote islands could be cut off, and the main Japanese bases could be attacked. The year opened with the Allies in a position to attack the Japanese bases in the Pacific.



AIR AID FOR WINGATE'S CHINDITS

The remarkable exploits of Brigadier O. C. Wingate's Chindits in the wild jungle country of Central Burma during 1943 (see Chapter 270) would have been impossible without the assistance this specially trained force received from the air. Sick and wounded were evacuated by air transport (above), and supplies were dropped by parachute (below). The groups into which the expedition separated maintained contact with India and one another by radio.

Photos, Associated Press; Keystone



in accordance with a scheme which would open the way to sea contact with China, so that a bomber force could be maintained on the Chinese mainland to operate against Japan proper.

Heavy and repeated bombing attacks were made on shipping and installations at Rabaul, most important Japanese marine base in the zone. There, on January 5, U.S. heavy bombers sank nine ships totalling 50,000 tons. Next day a convoy left Rabaul for Lae. Although it had an air escort that never fell below 100, it was subjected to almost constant air attack during its four days' passage. The enemy lost 85 aircraft for certain, with 29 probably destroyed and 19 damaged; three ships were sunk, and three more seriously damaged. Allied losses were light. On January 16, U.S. heavy bombers sank or severely damaged five vessels at Rabaul. The Battle of the Bismarck Sea, fought between March 2 and 4, when a Japanese force of 10 warships and 12 transport vessels heading from Rabaul for the north coast of New Guinea was wrecked on a lee shore by a combination of rain, fog, and Allied aircraft, was another example of the effectiveness of air power in the Pacific.

At dawn on March 23, U.S. heavy bombers attacked more than 250 Japanese aircraft grounded at Rabaul aerodromes and caused great destruction without loss to themselves. A similar attack on Rabaul on October 12 destroyed 100 and damaged 51 Japanese aircraft on the ground; 26 were shot down and heavy shipping loss was inflicted; on October 18, 60 aircraft were destroyed and more shipping damaged; on October 23, 24 and 25, 181 aircraft were destroyed on the ground and in combat, with 45 probables, for the loss of only five Allied machines. On November 2 nearly every ship in Rabaul harbour was sunk or hit by air attack and the Japanese lost 85 aircraft in combat during the operation, for the loss of 19 Allied planes; between November 3 and 5 in the area around Rabaul and Kavieng (New Ireland) two Japanese cruisers were sunk, many warships and merchant vessels damaged and 29 aircraft shot down; 10 U.S. aircraft were lost. On November 11, in the last big 1943 air attack on Rabaul, a Japanese cruiser and two destroyers were sunk, many other warships severely damaged, and 88 aircraft destroyed; the Allies lost 17 aircraft.

These powerful air blows at the best harbourage in that area coincided with the marshalling of Japanese forces for counter-attacks against the Allied drive. Time and again enemy concentrations were shattered before they could strike. Continual attrition began to tell on the resources even of so powerful and long-prepared an enemy.

The end of ground operations in Papua was announced on January 24, but the Allied advance in New Guinea went on. On February 6, in air combats over Wau, 21 Japanese fighters and five bombers were shot down without loss. On May 26 and 31 Lae received its two heaviest air attacks from the Allies. By then weather was steadily worsening for air operations in the islands north of Australia.

On June 30, Allied forces landed at Nassau Bay near Salamaua. On July 15, Australian and U.S. forces occupied Mubo. On August 17 and 18 the Japanese base at Wewak was attacked by air and 215 enemy aircraft destroyed. Seven days later enemy shipping at Hanga Bay suffered great damage. Wewak aerodrome was frequently attacked during August; on the 28th, 29 aircraft were shot down and 40 more damaged on the ground. The main Japanese base at Hanga Bay was also attacked and suffered great damage.



AIR OPERATIONS IN NEW GUINEA

Unloading under heavy Japanese air attack 25-pounder guns flown to Wau aerodrome in U.S. transport planes (February 6, 1943). Left, Japanese freighter in Wewak harbour straddled by bombs from an American bomber during one of many Allied air raids on this base during 1943. Below, Liberator bomber over Salamaua photographed from another aircraft during an attack on the Japanese-occupied town shortly before its capture by Australians on September 14, 1943. (See Chapter 276.)
Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Australian Official; Associated Press; "New York Times" Photon



PHOTO BY W. S. NEWTON, U.S. Army. The freighter in Wewak harbour is straddled by bombs from an American bomber during one of many Allied air raids on this base during 1943. Below, Liberator bomber over Salamaua photographed from another aircraft during an attack on the Japanese-occupied town shortly before its capture by Australians on September 14, 1943. (See Chapter 276.)
Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Australian Official; Associated Press; "New York Times" Photon





MUNDA AIRFIELD: BEFORE AND AFTER ITS CAPTURE

Munda, in New Georgia—one of the Solomon Islands—was taken by the Americans on August 6, 1943, after seven weeks of bitter fighting. Below, U.S. marines inspect the wreckage of a Japanese bomber found on the airfield there. Above, the same airfield after the Americans had widened, lengthened, and improved it, with Grumman Avengers in the foreground, and Hellcats beyond.

Photos, "New York Times" Photos; B.I.P.P.A.



by an air attack on September 1. Salamaua airfield was captured by the Australians on September 13, Salamaua itself on the 14th, and Lae on the 16th. On September 22 an Australian force landed behind the Japanese at Emschhafen, capturing the airfield on the 24th. In these operations Australian troops often moved as airborne forces. Wewak took another air attack on September 27, when 50 aircraft were destroyed on the ground, 14 in the air, seven ships were sunk, and others damaged. On October 2 Emschhafen itself was captured. On November 13 there was a heavy Allied air attack on the Alexishafen-Madang area of New Guinea, and four days later an Australian assault began on Sattelberg, supported by R.A.A.F. Vengeance bombers. Sattelberg fell on November 17, and the Japanese evacuated. The Japanese evacuated the island of New Guinea on November 17, 1943. The Japanese evacuated the island of New Guinea on November 17, 1943. The Japanese evacuated the island of New Guinea on November 17, 1943.

he lost his life, Flight-Lieut. W. E. Newton of No. 22 Squadron, R.A.A.F., was awarded one of the seven V.C.s gazetted during 1943, after serving in New Guinea from May 1942 until March 1943, and completing 52 operational sorties. His story illustrates the difficulties of air operations in that country. Leading an attack on March 16, 1943, he dived through intense and accurate shell-fire and his aircraft was hit repeatedly. Nevertheless, he held his course and bombed his target from a low level, destroying many buildings and dumps, including two 40,000-gallon fuel installations. With his aircraft crippled, fuselage and wing sections torn, petrol tanks pierced, main planes and engines seriously damaged and one main tire flat, he managed to fly back to base and land successfully. Next day he returned to the front, leading an attack on a target which was a single building. He was killed on the 17th of March 1943.

the same moment his aircraft burst into flames. He maintained control, turned his aircraft away and flew along the tropical, shark-infested coast, keeping in the air as long as he could, to take his crew as far as possible from the enemy positions. (The Japanese are not noted for their kindness to captured airmen.) Then with great skill he brought his blazing aircraft down on to the water. Two of the crew extricated themselves and swam ashore, but Newton perished with his machine. (See illus., p. 2673.)

Meanwhile, things progressed well in the Solomon Islands. The Japanese evacuated Guadalcanal on February 9. In an air battle over that island on June 16, U.S. aircraft shot down 77 Japanese aircraft against six of their own; 17 other enemy aircraft fell to ship and shore batteries. On June 30, when U.S. forces landed on Rendova Island, 121 Japanese aircraft attacking the shipping were shot down for the loss of 17 U.S. aircraft. One transport was sunk. Next day the Americans captured Viru harbour on New Georgia. Three days later 21 enemy bombers and fighters were shot down over Rendova. More than 200 U.S. aircraft attacked Japanese shipping in northern Solomons anchorages on July 17 and sank one light cruiser, two destroyers, a submarine chaser, and three other vessels, and destroyed 49 enemy aircraft with a loss of six of their own. During the night of July 19-20 a Japanese convoy northwest of New Georgia was attacked by air; a light cruiser and two destroyers were sunk and other craft were damaged, forcing the enemy to abandon his attempt to supply his garrisons in the northern Solomons. U.S. troops occupied Munda airfield on New Georgia on August 6, after seven weeks of bitter fighting. By August 28 all organized enemy resistance on New Georgia ceased.

Then came the next "island-hops." On October 11 Kahili aerodrome on Bougainville Island was heavily attacked and 12 Japanese aircraft were destroyed in combat. During October 16-17, in combined air operations over the Solomons and New Guinea, 104 Japanese aircraft were destroyed in combat, and many more on the ground. On October 27, U.S. and New Zealand troops landed on the Treasury Islands, Mono and Stirling, and next day American parachute troops landed without opposition on Choiseul Island. On November 1 U.S. troops landed on Rendova Island, most northerly of the Solomons (see page 2667).

These advances were not made without air support. In the attack on

Air Battles over the Solomons

on Allied shipping in Oro Bay, Papua, on March 28 the Japanese lost 25 aircraft and did small damage. U.S. naval forces were attacked by air near Guadalcanal on April 7 and one destroyer, one tanker, and one R.N.Z.N. corvette were sunk; the enemy lost 39 of the 98 aircraft employed: seven Allied planes were lost. On April 12 Port Moresby was attacked by over 100 Japanese aircraft, which were driven off with the loss of 37 destroyed or badly crippled. Darwin, in Australia, was attacked on May 2, June 20, 28 and 30, and July 6, with forces of up to 28 bombers escorted by a maximum of 30 fighters. They were intercepted each time and suffered losses at least twice as heavy as the defenders. Nothing the enemy did could stem the power of the Allies in the air or stop their advances on the surface.

In strategic air attacks on April 2, 3 and 4 off Kavieng, New Ireland, every ship in an enemy force of seven warships and five other vessels was destroyed or

badly damaged. In that month, too, an attack was made against the Japanese airfield at

Kendari (Celebes) in the Netherlands East Indies. During April also Admiral Yamamoto, planner of the Pearl Harbour attack, was killed "while directing operations from a military aeroplane." On June 23, U.S. bombers (one lost) made a 2,000-mile round trip from Australia to attack Macassar in the Celebes. On July 22, Australian-based Liberators attacked Surabaya in Java—a flight of 2,400 miles. On August 13 the oil centre of Balikpapan in eastern Borneo was attacked, in the largest land-based raid made up to that date in the Pacific, involving a flight of 2,500 miles from Australia.

BOMBING-UP IN THE ALEUTIANS

From August 1943 the Aleutian Islands served as a base for Allied air attacks on Japanese shipping and installations in the North Pacific. Here an ordnance crew at an Aleutian outpost is fixing bombs to the wings of one of the U.S. Navy PBV flying boats which regularly patrolled the waters off Alaska.

Photo, Pictorial Press



PARACHUTE TROOPS OF THE SOVIET ARMY

Soviet Russia was training parachute jumpers as an arm of offence before the Second Great War began, and used them in operations against Finland towards the end of 1939. Here, Red Army parachutists are checking their equipment as they prepare to board transport planes to carry out a large scale attack on the Eastern Front.

Photo, Associated Press

On December 13 Allied air forces attacked Gasmata, New Britain, where U.S. forces landed two days later. Heavy Allied air attacks on Japanese airfields at Cape Gloucester followed, and by the end of the year they were in Allied hands.

In the North Pacific, following air attacks, U.S. troops occupied Amchitka in the Aleutian Islands in January—Adak had been occupied some little time before. In May several landings were made with air support on Attu, where after severe fighting the Japanese were overcome before the end of May (see illus., page 2602).

On the night of September 18-19, carrier-borne air forces of the U.S. Pacific Fleet attacked Japanese bases on Nauru, Tarawa, Makin and Abomama, in the Gilbert Islands. On October 5 and 6, U.S. naval and air forces attacked the Wake Island group, causing much damage and destroying 12 Japanese aircraft.

1943 saw the Japanese expelled from Papua, the New Georgia Group, and the Aleutians, and facing expulsion from the Solomons. The threat to Australia and to Alaska had been lifted. In all these operations air power had played a most important part; photographing, reconnoitring, preventing counter-attacks, breaking up enemy resistance, clearing the seaways, fetching and carrying troops and supplies, and giving Red Cross aid.

Russian Front

The Russian air war was dominated throughout 1943 by ground operations. The Red Air Force, tied to the needs of the Red Army for close air support, had less opportunity than other Allied air forces to bomb strategically; but targets in East Prussia were attacked. Over the Russian battlefields thousands of German aircraft were destroyed. The bombing (and shelling) of Leningrad was eased after the defeat of the German investing forces on January 18. At the other end of the long front, Stalingrad was captured on February 2 despite the efforts of the weakened Luftwaffe to support the beleaguered garrison. By the end of 1943, despite German counter-attacks, the Red Army was west of Leningrad, Vitebsk, Kiev, and the Dnieper river bend, an advance partly accounted for by Red air support. The Red Air Force was also active in the Balkans, attacking German and Italian positions.

STALINGRAD RELIEVED: THE SOVIET ADVANCE

The second phase in the momentous 1942-1943 winter campaign in Russia—including the relief of Stalingrad, the withdrawal of the enemy from the Caucasus, and the launching of a new Russian Don offensive—is here described by our Military Editor, Maj.-Gen. Sir Charles Gwynn. The first phase, up to the encirclement of Von Paulus's army outside Stalingrad, was the subject of Chapter 252. The third phase is dealt with in Chapter 272

ALTHOUGH it was widely recognized that the German summer offensive of 1942 had led the High Command into an unsound strategical situation involving the continuance of operations into winter, yet military opinion all the world over was astonished when the rapid encirclement of Von Paulus's 6th Army, the success of the Middle Don offensive and the defeat of Von Hoth's rescue attempt from Kotelnikovo (described in Chapter

it was thought that any prolonged pause would give the enemy time to consolidate defensive positions and to bring up reserves.

Before following the course of the winter campaign and the strategical methods by which the Russian High Command overcame the difficulties confronting them, it may be well to recall the situation in the first week of 1943 on the sections of the front which were to become involved in its development.

salient, with its eastern bastions of Gzhatsk and Rzhev, constituted a threat to Moscow that could not be ignored, connected as it was with a possible offensive base provided by the hedgehog centres of Bryansk and Orel.

In the previous summer Russian pressure on this part of the front had been maintained, perhaps mainly with the object of preventing the Germans from transferring reserves from it to support their southern offensive. In particular Rzhev had been strongly assaulted, and by the late autumn it was almost completely isolated and under close attack. The protection afforded by rivers and marshy surroundings made it, however, exceptionally defensible, and, standing on the Moscow-Riga railway, it to some extent nullified the importance of the Russian wedge, which in the previous winter had, to the north of that line, almost reached Veliki Luki, threatening to interrupt direct railway communications between the northern and central German armies. During the autumn the Russians, by-passing Rzhev, had gained possession of most of the railway connecting it with Veliki Luki. Rzhev, however, blocked railway communication with Moscow. Heavy fighting went on, but the situation remained obscure, even after the capture of Veliki Luki on January 1 was claimed; and it was not to be clarified till some months later. About Bryansk and Orel the Russians had also engaged in offensive operations, but apparently on no great scale.

Farther to the east and south heavy fighting without any great change in the situation had gone on at Voronezh ever since the Germans gained a precarious footing across the Don at this point in the early phase of their summer offensive. South of this town they still held the right bank of the Don for over 100 miles and therefore still blocked the Voronezh-Rostov railway, which the Russian Middle Don offensive of December 19 had reached between Romanovka and Millerovo. Though the



CAPTURED GERMAN GUNS AT VELIKI LUKI

Veliki Luki, one of the strongest and most important German 'hedgehog' bastions on the Central Russian front (see map, p. 2715), fell to the advancing Red Army, after severe fighting, on January 2, 1943. It had been in enemy hands for 16 months. Some of the heavy guns captured with Veliki Luki are here being hauled away from the town by tractor to be made serviceable for use against their former owners.

Photo, Planet News

252) proved that the Red Army had acquired sufficient offensive power to seize the opportunity. Military opinion, however, failed to realize the extent of Russian recovery or to foresee the great achievements of the winter campaign that was to follow. Professional opinion held that the great initial victories could not be fully exploited under winter conditions by armies that, as they advanced, were bound to leave behind them broken communications and a trail of destruction. It was also held that the German line, though it had been broken in places, was still too strong to be broken in places, and that the Russian line, though it had been broken in places, was still too weak to be broken in places.

In the north Leningrad was still closely invested and depended on the precarious route across the ice of Lake Ladoga for supplies. Its situation was not as desperate as in the previous winter, but efforts by Govorov's army from within and Meretskov's from without to join hands had so far failed to break through the German line on the Volkhov River or to recapture the key fortress of Schlessenburg at the southern corner of Lake Ladoga. In the Lake Ruzhica and Novgorod-Suzdal region, which had so recently escaped the German advance, the situation was still uncertain. In the south the German line, though it had been broken in places, was still too strong to be broken in places, and the Russian line, though it had been broken in places, was still too weak to be broken in places.

was strongly defended by the Germans and the railway connecting it with Voroshilovgrad, across the Donetz, remained open. For a time it looked as if the Russian offensive had been brought to a standstill at this point, and that the Germans were clinging precariously to Millerovo in hopes that it would prove a pivot for an ultimate major counter-stroke to rescue Von Paulus. Over-sanguine expectations excited by the amazingly rapid success and progress of the Middle Don offensive were, therefore, somewhat damped.

Finally, the position on the Caucasus front should be considered. It was recorded in Chapter 245 how, on November 19, the very day the Stalingrad counter-offensive opened, the Russians had by a powerful counter-attack

defeated the German attempt to capture Ordzhonikidze in the Terek valley. Thereafter the news from Stalingrad must have had an immense effect on the Caucasus operations. It seems probable that some at least of the divisions with which Von Hoth attempted to relieve the 6th Army were drawn from reserves on the Caucasus front, and this may have decided the Germans to accept the Ordzhonikidze defeat and to retire to Nalchick. But it was not until Von Hoth's rescue operations had failed and the Russian Middle Don offensive of December 16 was carrying all before it that the situation of the 17th Army in the Caucasus became by the end of the year extremely serious. Up till then, though they had been compelled to abandon the offensive, the Germans may have hoped to stand during the

winter on the Terek at Mozdok and on the Kuma River in the Mineralnye-Georgievsk area. If that was their intention it must soon have become evident that a much more drastic withdrawal would be necessary; for with Von Hoth's force in full retreat towards the Sal and Manych rivers and the Middle Don offensive showing no signs of losing its momentum, the communications of the 17th Army were obviously threatened; and even the bottle-neck at Rostov through which they ran might ultimately be in danger. Moreover, the Russians in the Terek Valley were now on the offensive and by December 24 were attacking Nalchick violently.

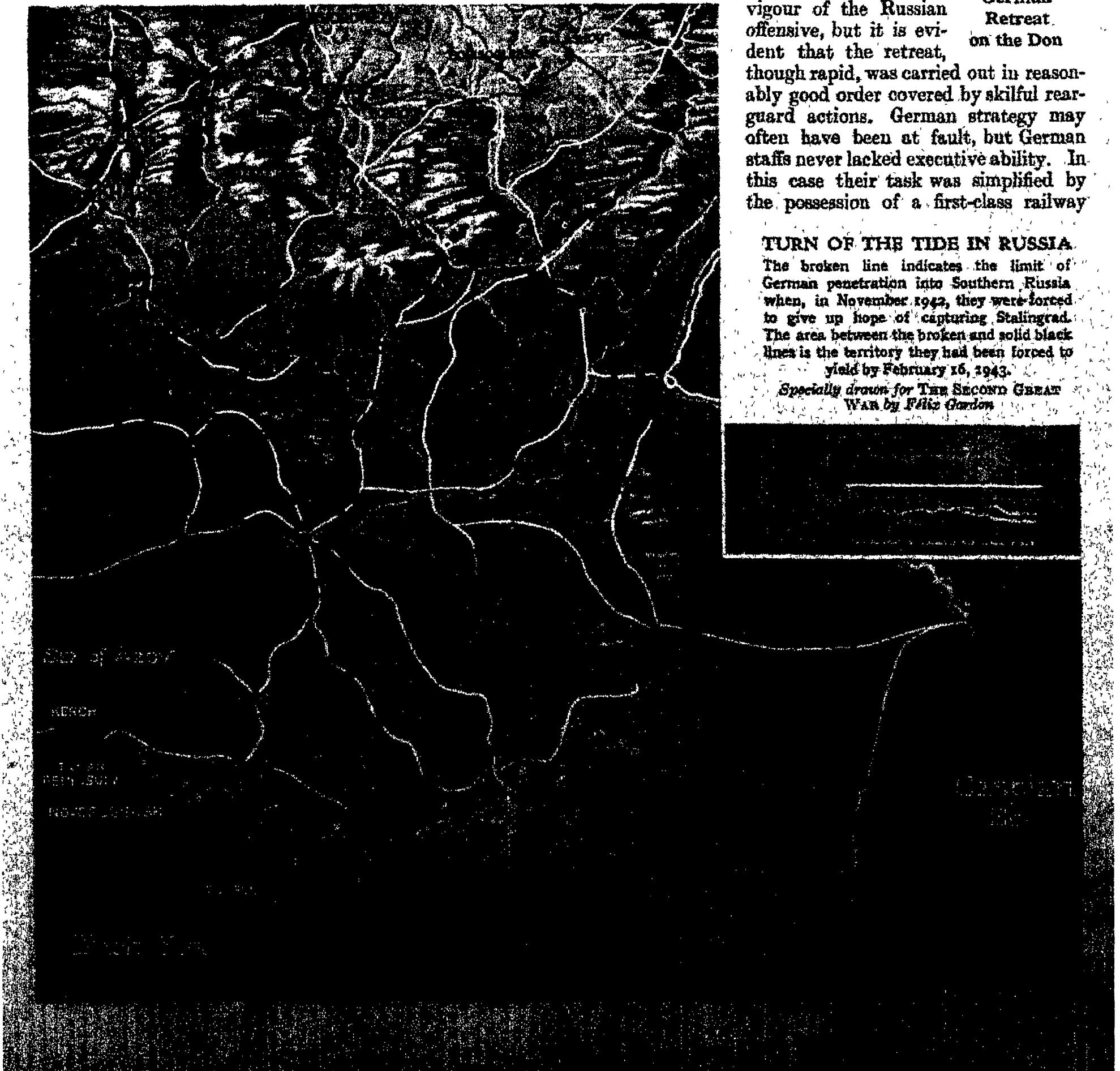
The exact date on which the German retreat began cannot yet be definitely ascertained, nor how far this date was determined by the vigour of the Russian offensive, but it is evident that the retreat, though rapid, was carried out in reasonably good order covered by skilful rear-guard actions. German strategy may often have been at fault, but German staffs never lacked executive ability. In this case their task was simplified by the possession of a first-class railway

German Retreat on the Don

TURN OF THE TIDE IN RUSSIA.

The broken line indicates the limit of German penetration into Southern Russia when, in November 1942, they were forced to give up hope of capturing Stalingrad. The area between the broken and solid black lines is the territory they had been forced to yield by February 16, 1943.

Specially drawn for THE SECOND GREAT WAR by Felix Gordon





FREEING THE CAUCASUS FROM THE GERMANS

1. Men of the Red Army in a street of Mineralnye Vody, recaptured on January 11, 1943, with a number of other towns in the spa district by Lt.-Gen. Maslennikov, victor of Kalinin. 2. A Circassian Sergeant of the Guards hoists the Red Flag in Mozdok on January 3, the day of the city's liberation: it had been held by the Germans since August 27, 1942. 3. Automatic riflemen fighting in Pyatigorsk, another spa town freed on January 11. Photos, *Planet News*.

following their obvious line of retreat, and of a good road on which their abundant mechanized transport could move freely since snowfall had not been sufficiently heavy to cause serious obstruction. The Russian pursuit, on the other hand, in addition to being delayed by rearguards and demolitions, increasingly felt the lack of railways the farther it progressed; and when forced to leave the road by demolitions was hampered by snow. The Germans had therefore every chance of exploiting the slowness of modern armies conferred by fast-moving mechanical transport, which has time and again been illustrated in this war when armies found themselves in difficulties and had to retreat. Only by encirclement or by the necessity of defending some vital point were they brought to decisive action. It was therefore to be expected that they would stand to cover them on the line of the Stavropol River and on the lower Kuban in the area west of Armavir, where the river has a number of crossings. The

capture of Georgievsk on January 7 and Mineralnye Vody four days later—after some heavy fighting—proved that a much longer retreat was contemplated. About the same time it was known that the German force at Elista, of which nothing had been heard since the siege of Stalingrad began, was also in retreat pursued by Kalmyck Cossack cavalry. It was, in fact, this cavalry advancing with amazing speed that seemed for a time to have a chance of outflanking the retreating columns and of bringing them to decisive action. By the middle of January it was evident that the Germans had finally abandoned all hopes of ever resuming their offensive towards the Grozny and Baku oilfields, but it seemed hardly believable that they would give up the rich prizes of the Maikop oilfields and the Kuban granary. It was generally expected that they would stand to cover them on the line of the Stavropol River and on the lower Kuban in the area west of Armavir, where the river has a number of crossings. The

retreated from Kotelnikovo hotly pursued by Malinovsky, was showing signs of recovery and Malinovsky was handicapped by the fact that Von Paulus's army at Stalingrad partially blocked his main line of communication; moreover, he could hardly expect to be strongly reinforced while the investment of the German 6th Army made heavy demands on Russian resources. In the centre and south of the line it seemed scarcely possible that the Russian Caucasus armies, which had been so heavily engaged and so long separated from main centres of munitions production, could have great offensive potentiality. Although, therefore, the Germans had suffered disastrous defeat, it appeared probable that they might escape its worst consequences and at least be able to retain possession of a substantial part of Northern Caucasia and of the whole of the Donetz Basin. With Rostov and the crossings of the Donetz in their hands, an eventual resumption of their offensive in the summer might also be contemplated, particularly in view of the possibility that Russian resources and military power might be exhausted before the

Situation
in the
Caucasus

able to stabilize their front if they could check the pursuit in the Caucasus, the Russians gave proof that their initial success was no flash in the pan.

On January 16 a new offensive was opened on a wide front across the Don south of Voronezh, which had the same rapid success achieved a month earlier

New Russian Offensive on the Middle Don. It extended as far north as Svoboda, where the Voronezh-Rostov rail-

way crosses the river, and resulted in the immediate clearance of the German block on that railway. Moreover, linking up with the previous offensive, it threatened a second railway of great importance to the Germans for lateral communication which runs from the Donetz Basin up the Oskol valley, through Valuiki and other large centres, to Moscow, crossing the Voronezh-Kursk railway at Kastornaya. This new offensive, which recalled Foch's strategy in 1918 of opening an offensive on a new sector when the momentum of previous blows began to diminish, not only inflicted heavy punishment but made fresh demands on German reserves. About the same date Millerovo was captured and the original Middle Don offensive resumed its advance southwards, reaching the Donetz River where the railways to Rostov and to Stalingrad cross it.

These successes began seriously to threaten German-occupied Rostov and the line of communications of the whole of the army in Caucasia which ran through the town. Moreover, the demands they made on the limited number of German reserves militated against the reinforcement of Von Hoth's troops, still under heavy pressure on the Manych front.

In face of these new developments the German High Command appear to have dropped any intention they may have had of standing at Armavir to protect the Maikop oilfields. The retreat continued, and on January 23 Armavir was captured by the Russians. Meantime, Malinovsky had driven Von Hoth across the Manych, capturing Salsk on January 22, where the Stalingrad-Novorossiisk railway branches to Rostov. Von Hoth, therefore, was faced with the double task of covering the approaches to Rostov and of checking a drive by Malinovsky along the Novorossiisk railway towards Tikhoryetsk where it crosses the Rostov-Baku line. At that point there was obviously a chance of inter-

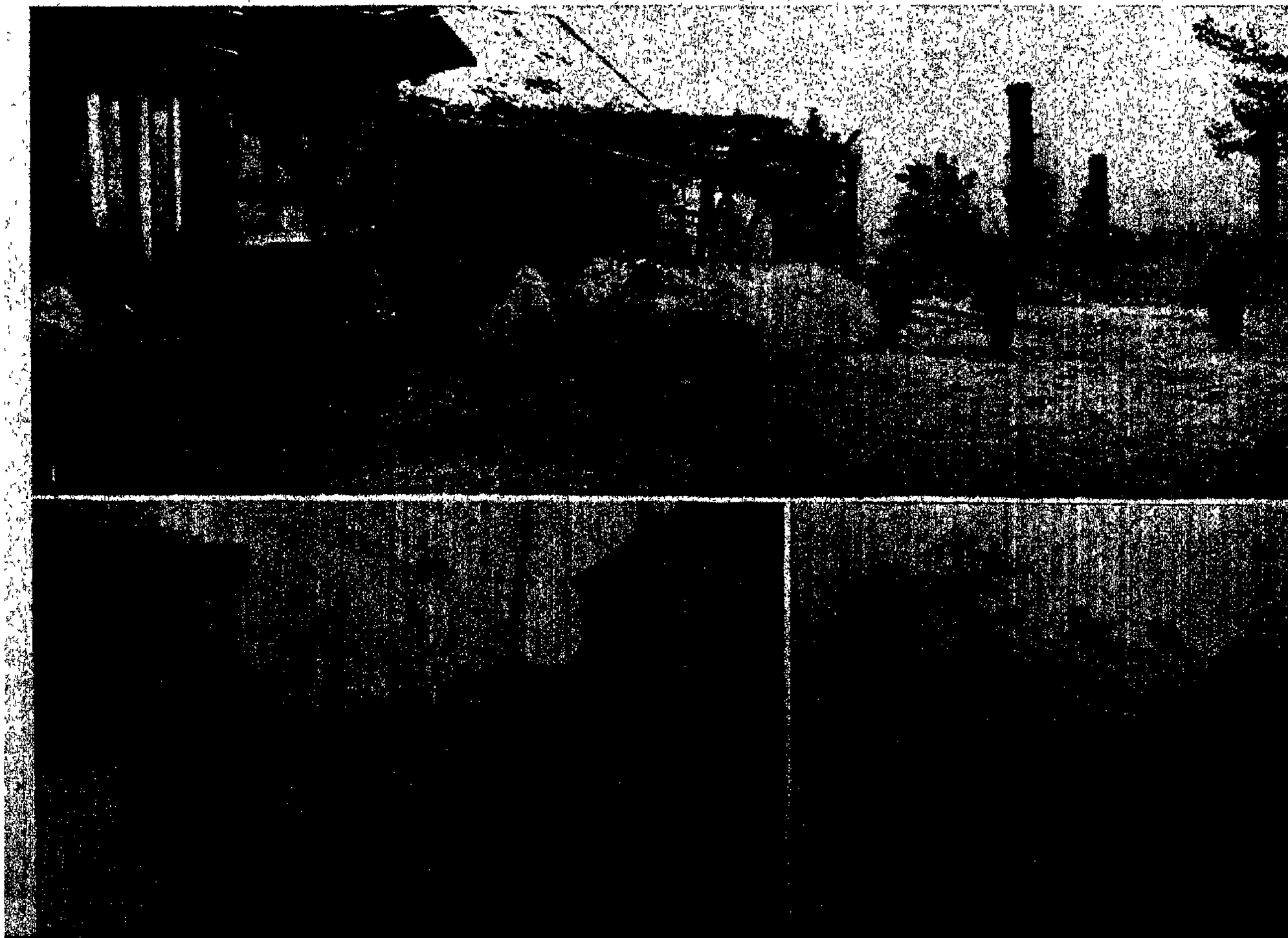
cepting the retreating Army of the Caucasus, and something in the nature of a race towards it developed.

At this stage Von Paulus's refusal to surrender, though he must have lost all hope of rescue, undoubtedly had an important influence on the situation since it to some extent limited the strength of Malinovsky's force; and the main body of the Caucasus Army succeeded in passing Tikhoryetsk before the town was captured by the Russians on January 30.

Nevertheless, the loss of Armavir had cut the main communications of the Germans in the Maikop area, and of the force that had been operating towards Tuapse. Pursued by the Russians who, from Tuapse, had launched a counter-offensive, this wing of the Caucasus Army had now to retreat towards Krasnodar through difficult country served by indifferent roads and without railway communications. In consequence, the Maikop oilfields were recovered before the Germans had succeeded in bringing them again into production. Strenuous efforts had been made to restore them, but they had

RELIEF COMES TO LENINGRAD

The siege of Leningrad, which lasted 16 months, was raised on January 18, 1943, when, after a fortnight's heavy fighting, troops of the Volkov and Leningrad fronts joined forces. 1. Soviet infantry dislodging the enemy from a Workers' Settlement near Leningrad. 2. Russian half-track armoured cars arrive in Schlusselburg, recaptured in the advance on Leningrad. 3. The forces of Gen. Govorov and Gen. Meretskov make contact at last. *Photos, Planet News*





VICTORS AND VANQUISHED AT STALINGRAD

On January 31, 1943, Field-Marshal von Paulus (seen above, under interrogation) and his entire staff were captured at German Headquarters in a building nearly in the centre of Stalingrad. The defence of the city, which had been the focus of bitter fighting for 23 weeks, was conducted from a dugout, seen in the top photograph where (left to right) Major-General E. Krylov, Army Chief of Staff, Lieut.-General V. Chuikov, Commander of the 62nd Army, Lieut.-General K. Gurov, member of the Army Military Council, and Major-General A. Rodimtsev, Hero of the Soviet Union, Commander of the 13th Guards Division, are in conference. *Photos, Editorial Press*

been thoroughly scorched and local partisans played an active part in interfering with restoration work. The failure to capture Tuapse was another example of wasted effort, and its retention intact by the Russians left the Black Sea Fleet a much-needed base. The German retreat to Krasnodar was successfully accomplished, and no doubt provided a considerable reinforcement to the force operating at Novorossiisk. To anticipate events: although the combined groups became isolated from the main army retreating towards Rostov, and Krasnodar after hard fighting was recaptured by the Russians in the middle of February, yet the Germans were to put up a prolonged resistance in the highly defensible country where the broad swift-flowing lower reaches of the Kuban separate the western spurs of the Caucasus from the marshes of the Taman peninsula. For months this pocket remained the only remnant of territory overrun by the German summer offensive of 1942 that still remained in enemy hands, and though steadily reduced in size, it was not finally cleared until the coming Russian summer offensive had left it far in rear.

Other events now began to succeed each other—or to synchronize—with confusing rapidity over an ever-widening front as the German Russian offensive swept on in full flood. Retreat from the Caucasus Having successfully passed the danger point at Tikhoryetsk, the German main Caucasus Army made all speed to reach the bottle-neck at Rostov and the adjacent minor ports on the Sea of Azov, by which it might escape; and a bridgehead was formed about Bataisk, opposite Rostov, and at Yeisk on the Azov coast.

Meanwhile, the Germans had suffered fresh disastrous reverses. In the north, by a combined offensive which opened on January 12, Govorov and Meretkov on January 18 joined hands, opening a

narrow lane to Leningrad and capturing the fortress of Schluesselburg. This had little effect on the great events in the south, but it meant much to beleaguered Leningrad, and was a reminder to the Germans that they could not safely transfer reserves from this front to the southern theatres.

Then, on January 25, Zhukov launched yet another offensive of the Foch pattern on the Don front. Overwhelming the German pocket at

Hungarian Voronezh the army
Contingent commanded by
Shattered Golikov drove across

the river, along the Kursk railway, with a speed exceeding even that of the previous Don offensives. It shattered the opposing Hungarian contingent and the German divisions which had been mixed with it in an effort to ensure that a pivot, to which both sides attached great importance and for which they had fought for months, should be held at all costs. For the Russians Voronezh had great sentimental value; it was a symbol of determination to yield no further ground almost in the same category as Stalingrad. But apart from that there were great strategic objects to be gained by a decisive victory at this point. The capture of Voronezh finally cleared the last obstruction on the Moscow-Rostov railway running through Voronezh; it opened the way for an advance along the railway from Voronezh to Kursk and thence in due course to Kiev. Kursk, the great hedgehog German centre which had resisted all attacks in the previous winter, and which had been the starting point of the principal German offensive in the summer, was obviously now the objective, and advance towards it was rapid. On January 28 Kastornaya (where the Moscow-Kharkov railway crossed the Kursk line) was captured, thus clearing the way for through communication between Moscow and Yalutsk, reached a



NEW WEAPONS USED ON THE STALINGRAD FRONT

Russian multi-barrelled rocket-projectors in operation during the Battle of Stalingrad: the men of the Soviet Army nicknamed these weapons 'Katyushas.' Top: German six-barrelled mobile mortar, used for projecting either high explosive or smoke bombs. It was an effective weapon, notable for the simplicity of its action which involved no heavy barrel or complicated firing mechanism. Below, Stalingrad streets silent again on February 1, 1943: one centre of enemy resistance, crushed next day, alone remained. The only other Germans still there were Von Facker and his staff, discussing terms of surrender, and the wounded being evacuated by Soviet stretcher bearers (right).

Picture, Picture News. Picture, Picture News.



week earlier by the second middle Don offensive.

By now the whole front established by the German summer offensive had been broken and was crumbling at an ever-increasing rate. At Stalingrad on January 8 Von Paulus had refused a summons to surrender, possibly less in obedience to Hitler's exhortations than because he realized that he could still exercise some influence on the general situation. His refusal had, however, been followed by an intensification of the Russian attack designed to liberate the investing army for employment

BATTERED REMAINS OF VORONEZH

Voronezh, whose western suburbs had been in enemy hands since the great German offensive into Soviet territory in the summer of 1942, was finally cleared of the enemy on January 25, 1943. Its recapture removed the last obstruction on the railway between Moscow and Rostov, and opened the way for an advance along the railway from Voronezh to Kursk, and thence in due course to the city of Kiev.

Photo, "The Times"

elsewhere. Fierce fighting followed, during which the Germans were split into a number of groups, and pounded unmercifully by Soviet artillery at shorter and shorter range. It was a gallant stand, but on February 2 Von Paulus, giving way to the representations of his subordinate commanders, decided to yield in order to avoid further bloodshed. No one can criticize him for his decision,

nor his troops who had been sacrificed by the folly and obstinacy of Hitler. Not that that in any way detracted from the amazing achievement of the Red Army and its brilliant leaders. With Von Paulus (now promoted Field-Marshal), 24 generals became prisoners of war; and 190,000 of lower rank had been slaughtered or taken prisoner in the final stand, the remnants of the army of 330,000 which Hitler had promised would establish Germany on the Volga for all time. Never before had German arms experienced such complete and devastating disaster.

MEN OF THE COSSACK GUARDS

In the Caucasus, the horse still played a part as a mount during the Second Great War: accounts of fighting there are studded with references to the use of (horse-mounted) Cossack Cavalry in conjunction with tanks and infantry. Advancing with amazing speed in spite of ceaseless rain, sleet and snow, they contributed substantially to the clearing of the enemy from the Northern Caucasus during the early part of 1943.

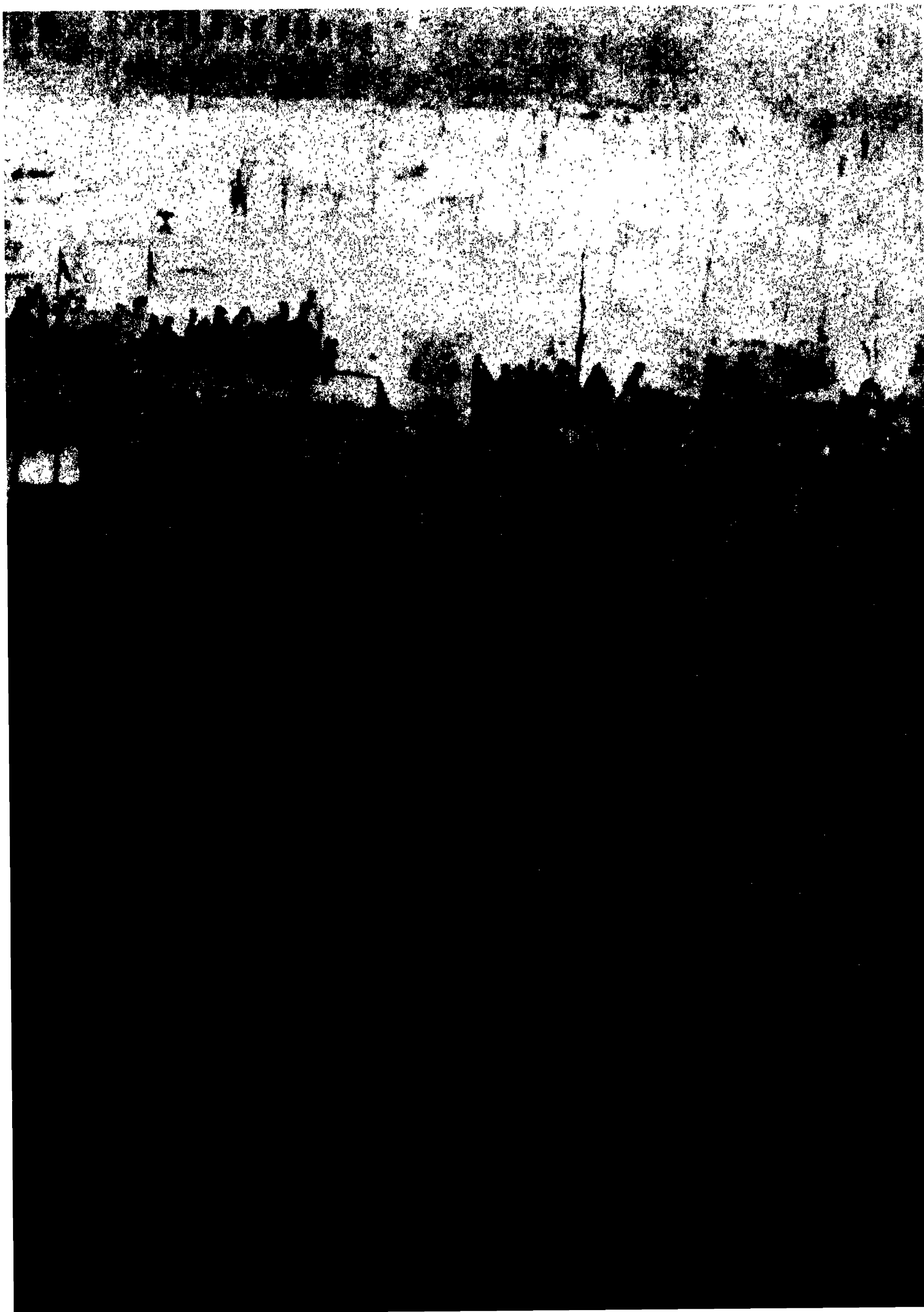
Photo, Pictorial Press



But the final scene at Stalingrad was soon relegated to its place in History as all attention became concentrated on the progress of the great wave of the Russian offensive. On the right it overwhelmed Kursk after slight resistance on February 8. Further south it swept forward, crossing the Oskol River, clearing the railway which ran parallel to it, capturing the important centre of Kupyansk and establishing a crossing over the Middle Donetz during the first week of February. Then after a short pause it swept west across the Upper Donetz, taking the hedgerow country of France on February 9, and clearing the way for the final advance into Germany, which was now only a matter of time.









TRANSPORT PROBLEMS IN BURMA

1 To get supplies to the men engaged in the Burma campaign, roads had to be pushed through the forest in very difficult, unknown, mountainous country. Coolies and mules helped to make preliminary tracks; bulldozers and other road-making machines followed them. Here are troops and supply mules using one of the resulting roads. 2 Men of the Royal Indian A S C on a newly made jungle track. 3 Supplies for the Chinese fighting in Burma struggling along the Ledo road while it was under construction. It was completed as far as the Hukawng Valley by the end of 1943.



TESTING JAPANESE DEFENCES IN BURMA

When the British returned from Burma in May 1942, as described in Chapter 206, and for many months after, they were too fully occupied with military affairs in Europe and North Africa to be able to give more than defensive attention to the Indo-Burmese frontier. But 1943 saw the opening of Allied offensive operations in Burma—small in scale, these were designed to probe Japanese defences and pave the way for the weightier attacks that were to follow.

WHEN 1943 began, the European War had precedence in the strategy of the United Nations. The importance of the Far Eastern conflict was not ignored. Indeed, public opinion in the United States of America, New Zealand and Australia stressed it. Burma, lying roughly at the northern end of the perimeter of Japan's advance stretching through Siam, Malaya, the Netherlands Indies to the Solomons, was additionally vital to the potential offensive in the Far East because of its contiguity to China on the east and India on the west.

Map-reading strategists imagined that invasion of Burma by land would readily solve the problem of China's isolation. In reality the topographical difficulties put such a plan out of the bounds of practical execution. Until command of the sea had been fully restored to the United Nations in the Bay of Bengal, it was impossible to strike at the Japanese in Lower Burma. To a land invasion from the north-west and north-east, the north-to-south trend of Burma's road, river and railway communications presented an almost insuperable obstacle. Moreover, the terrain both on the Indian and the Chinese borders was mountainous, jungly, and devoid of any but lateral roadways—and they were mere tracks unsuited to military transport.

The exigencies of war in the European zone severely limited shipping available for the transport of supplies to India and Limited Allied for the support of combined operations. The Shipping United Nations had Facilities perforce to rely for the time being on the relentless pressure exerted by General MacArthur on the southern end of the enemy perimeter in the Far East while Admiral Chester Nimitz slowly but remorselessly and with ever-growing strength swept the Pacific Ocean to the west. To ease China's position, air communications developed a new traffic of supplies "over the hump," and the construction of a new road from Assam through Leda was undertaken. (See map, page 265.) So the High Command in the East was free under Lord Mountbatten to plan the War in the East, and to give the Japanese

regal dignity under General Auchinleck, and then under Admiral Lord Louis Mountbatten as Commander-in-Chief of the South-East Asia Command—had to adjust strategy to the realities of the situation. The primary objective was to hold the Japanese forces in Burma so that the danger of air or land attack on India was reduced to a minimum. For the rest, it was necessary to ensure the thorough training of British, Indian, African and, later, American troops (see illus., page 265) gradually marshalled in India for entry into Burma by the north-west passages from the former country. In China, General Joseph Stilwell, in command of Chinese and American forces, was similarly preparing for an invasion from the north-east.

The plan was to drive the Japanese out of the north of Burma and so clear the way for restoring communications with China. Before this could be attempted the building up of forces in

China and India had to be achieved, and operations during 1943, therefore, were mainly carried out by the Royal Air Force, Indian Air Force and American Air Force based on India, with valuable co-operation from the American Air Force based on Chungking. The only land campaign was that designed to shake the Japanese occupation of Akyab, in Arakan. In addition there was a spectacular and useful diversion on land by the officially named Long Range Penetration Group, under Brigadier Orde Charles Wingate, D.S.O.

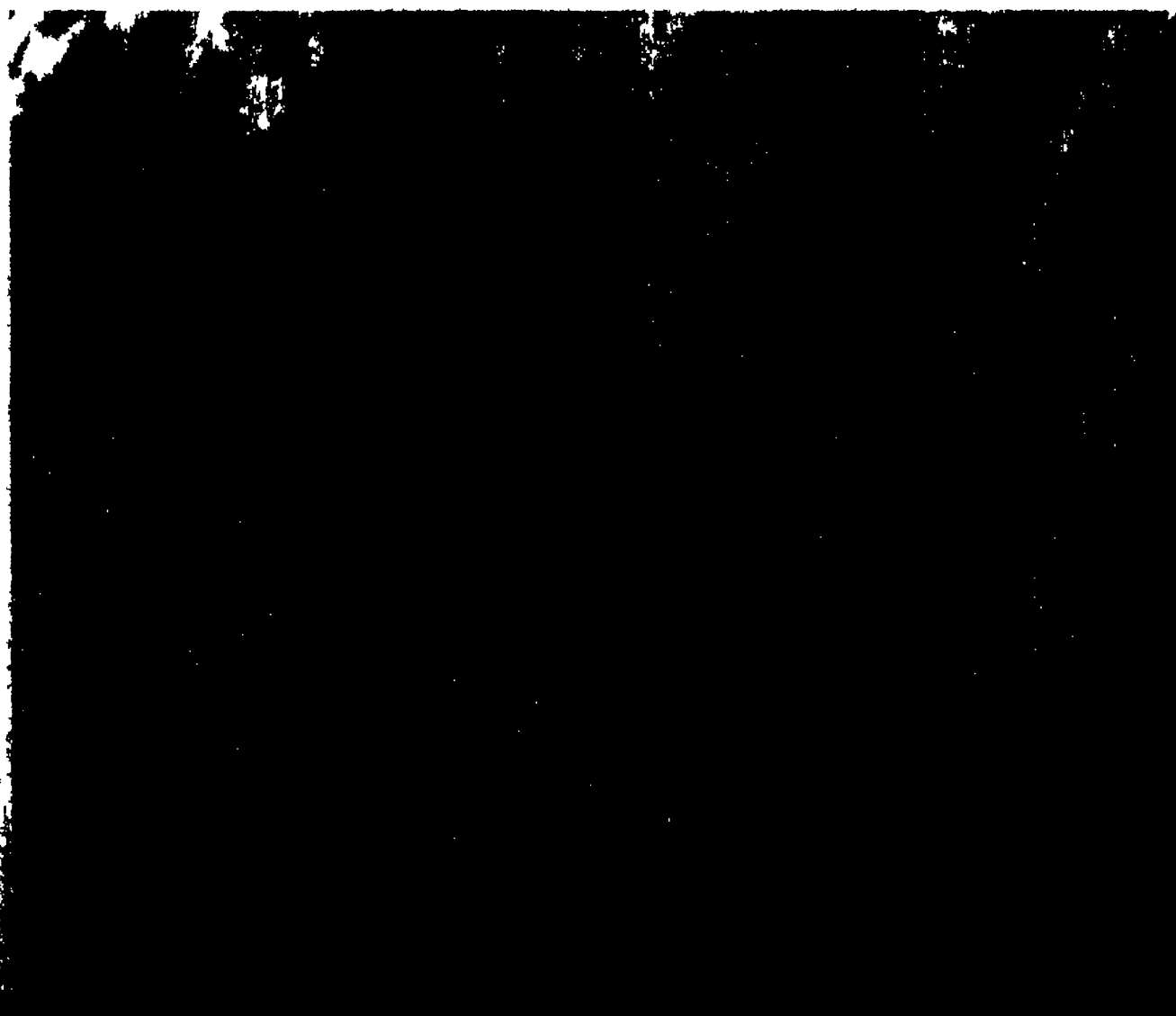
Considerable expansion of airfields and training establishments in India gave splendid support to the Allied airmen. Air supremacy was quickly secured. Although the natural strength of the Japanese positions in Arakan prevented any loosening of the enemy's grip on strong points in that western coastal strip of Burma, the Royal Air Force and the

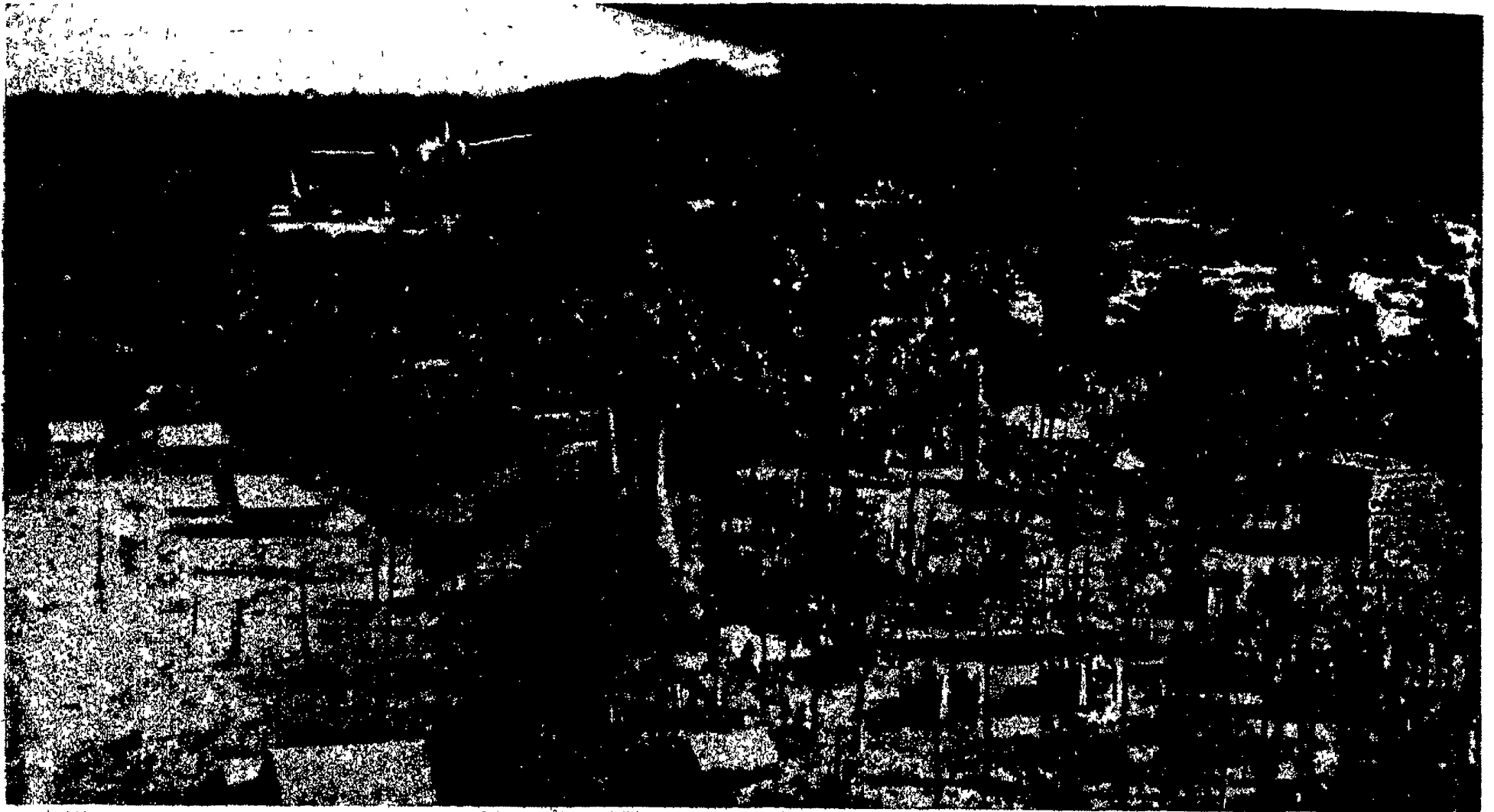
Allies
Secure Air
Supremacy

SIKH SNIPERS IN THE JUNGLE OF ARAKAN

In the early months of 1943 the British made a drive into Arakan, the strip of country lying along the west coast of Burma, with the object of capturing the port of Akyab. The expedition failed, but much experience was gained and considerable losses were inflicted on the enemy.

Photo, Indian Official





AIR ASSAULT ON JAPANESE BASES IN BURMA

Gangaw in the Myittha valley, an advance Japanese base in Burma, was one of the objectives bombed on December 22, 1942, by R.A.F. Blenheims, here seen flying low over the village. Left, a striking photograph of incendiary bombs falling towards the Burmese village of Ngazaunghpet during an attack on enemy positions in the Taungdaung district in February 1943.

Photos, British Official

U.S.A. 10th A.F. roamed far afield over Burma and, eventually, Malaya and Siam. Rangoon was frequently attacked and for weeks at a time was virtually closed to Japanese shipping.

The story of this air offensive cannot be properly told without some description of prevailing weather conditions. The development of India's meteorological services since air transport became important has been noteworthy. The needs of war impelled intensified expansion of facilities for giving airmen information of vital moment to them. The monsoon rains, beginning in Burma somewhere in May and lasting till October, were regarded 20 years ago as an unconquerable hindrance to air transport in the peak months of July and August. But in the monsoon period of 1943 British and American airmen overcame these difficulties as a matter of course.

Apart from torrential rains flooding the airfields, often reducing visibility to zero, the monsoon carried with it heavy and persistent clouds which were

This concerted air offensive prevented the Japanese from exploiting Burma to the full as a base for offensive operations. Their loss of air supremacy forced them to remove their bomber squadrons from forward airfields. Frequently their railway communications from north to south were cut. The air stranglehold on Rangoon made it impossible for them to develop a sea-borne attack in that port without coming under the notice of the lynx-eyed watchers in the air. Their trans-



Photo, Indian Official

The provision of supplies by air to troops operating in the field and to friendly tribesmen carrying on "partisan" activities was another side of the airmen's work. In January 1945 some supplies were dropped by plane in Italy for the first time.

ing as heavy casualties as possible on the enemy. The drive into Arakan, the strip of territory on the west coast of Burma—shut off from the interior by the Mayu Hills—was intended to bring about the recovery of Akyab. British and Indian troops crossed the Burma frontier through Cox's Bazaar some time in the middle of December 1942. Buthidaung was captured and the attacking forces reached Rathedaung, which was strongly held by the enemy. The Japanese had at first withdrawn in the belief that the forces against them were stronger than they really were. At one time British-Indian forces were within 15 miles of Akyab. Then the enemy, strongly reinforced, staged fierce counterattacks, outflanked our advanced forces, and compelled them to retire. Lacking adequate air craft and too small in numbers to meet the strengthened Japanese forces, the British and Indian troops were forced to

[illegible]



BATTLE AREA IN BURMA, 1943

Some idea of the difficulties of launching a campaign into Burma from India can be gathered from this map. Except along the coast, the two countries are separated by difficult, forest-clad mountains through which runs no railway or navigable river. Penetration can be made only by road or air—and the necessary highways and airfields had to be built in the course of campaigning as part of military operations.

Specially drawn for THE SECOND GREAT WAR by Harrop

As Lord Wavell afterwards told an American audience in accepting responsibility for this failure, the withdrawal was due to an underestimation of the size of the force required for the capture of Akyab. Yet the operations had their value in the lessons taught, and in the heavy toll taken of enemy strength: Japanese casualties were estimated to have been 4,000, about half of them killed. British and Indian casualties, announced on April 25 when the force had been withdrawn, were 3,514, of whom only 392 (171 British) were killed.

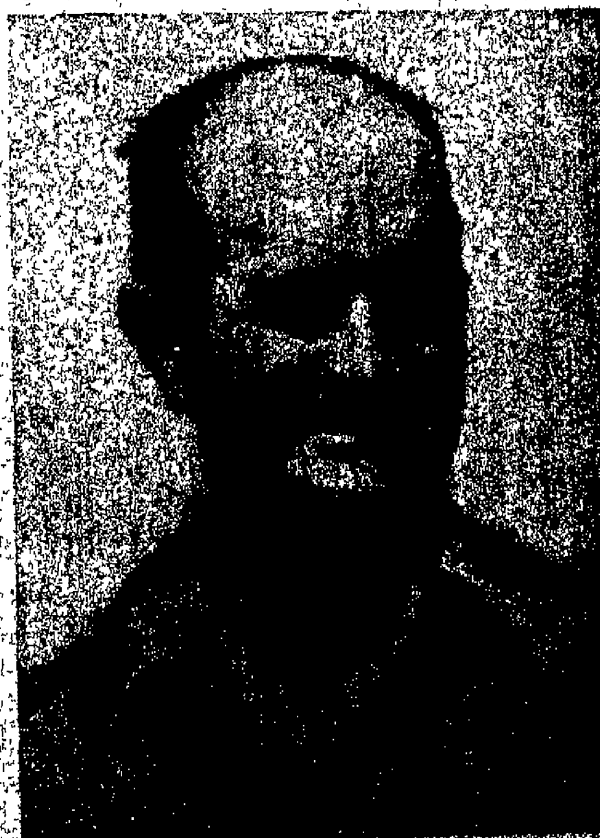
More important, and in its special way more successful, was the campaign of the Long Range Penetration Group, who took the spear of Chindits—after the famous Indian mountain Burma Force—into the interior of Burma. Their operations were a surprise to the enemy, and they inflicted heavy losses on the Japanese. The Chindits were a small force of British and Indian soldiers, trained in jungle warfare, and they were equipped with light arms and supplies. They were able to move through the jungle and mountains of Burma, and they were able to inflict heavy losses on the Japanese. The Chindits were a small force of British and Indian soldiers, trained in jungle warfare, and they were equipped with light arms and supplies. They were able to move through the jungle and mountains of Burma, and they were able to inflict heavy losses on the Japanese.

Palestine and later in Abyssinia as a genius of guerilla warfare, and had been specially selected for this new task by Field-Marshal Wavell. He chose mixed detachments of Gurkhas and British troops for the expedition. The latter were all aged between 28 and 35—mostly married men from the North of England. Wingate trained them in jungle warfare, river crossing and long forced marches, until they were moulded into shock troops ready for anything. Mule transport had to be used as well as elephants. Wingate's abilities found no difficulty in training British or Gurkha soldiers as mulebeers. He recruited Burmese mahouts (elephant drivers) to train them in handling elephants. The columns which crossed the Chindwin River on February 15 were self-contained. Each had R.A.F. officers and W.A.F. airmen, and a small force of engineers. The columns were able to move through the jungle and mountains of Burma, and they were able to inflict heavy losses on the Japanese. The Chindits were a small force of British and Indian soldiers, trained in jungle warfare, and they were equipped with light arms and supplies. They were able to move through the jungle and mountains of Burma, and they were able to inflict heavy losses on the Japanese.

movements. Mules and oxen carried the radio sets on the march. Other mules carried mortars, guns and ammunition. Heavier supplies were carried by the elephants. Each column had its quota of Burmese officers and men, without whom, said Brigadier Wingate on his return to India, the operations would have been impossible. They had mule-borne loud-speakers for addressing the villagers, who were told of the growing strength of the United Nations and the certainty of deliverance from Japan. Mules also carried duplicating machines which produced secret sheets distributed to the Burmans.

The Chindits were not appealing to unreceptive ears. Among the tribesmen of the border hills of Burma were British troops who had never left Burma, but had been re-equipped and returned to the jungle—veteran fighters, fearless and steeped in jungle lore. Their leadership of the Chin hill men was a stimulus to the Chins who, as irregular fighters, have magnificent qualities. So, too, have the Kachins, and both have long served in the Indian Army, proving their worth in many a campaign of the last war. Ever since the British retreat, these Chins and Kachins, under either British or their own leadership, had waged war against the Japanese, and modern arms had been supplied to them from the air. Typical of their spirit was the exploit of a Chin lad of 16 who led a party of 15 men to attack

Wingate
and His
Chindits



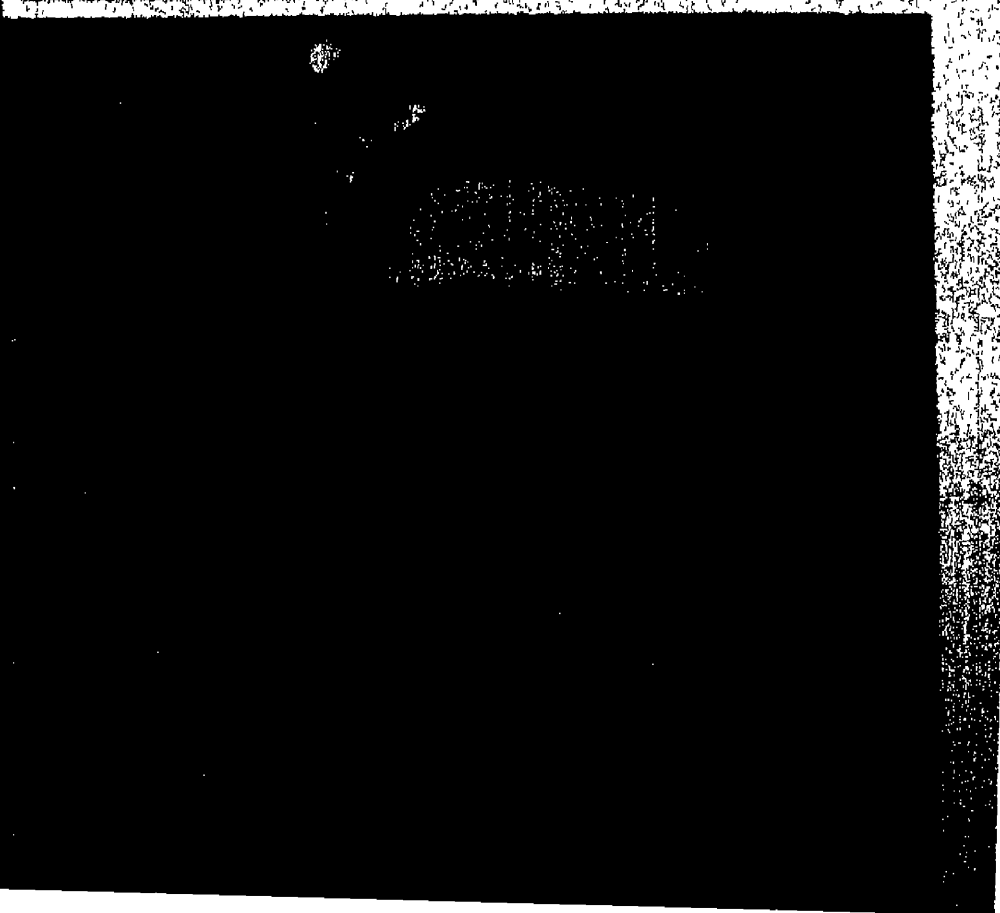
COMMANDER OF THE
14TH ARMY

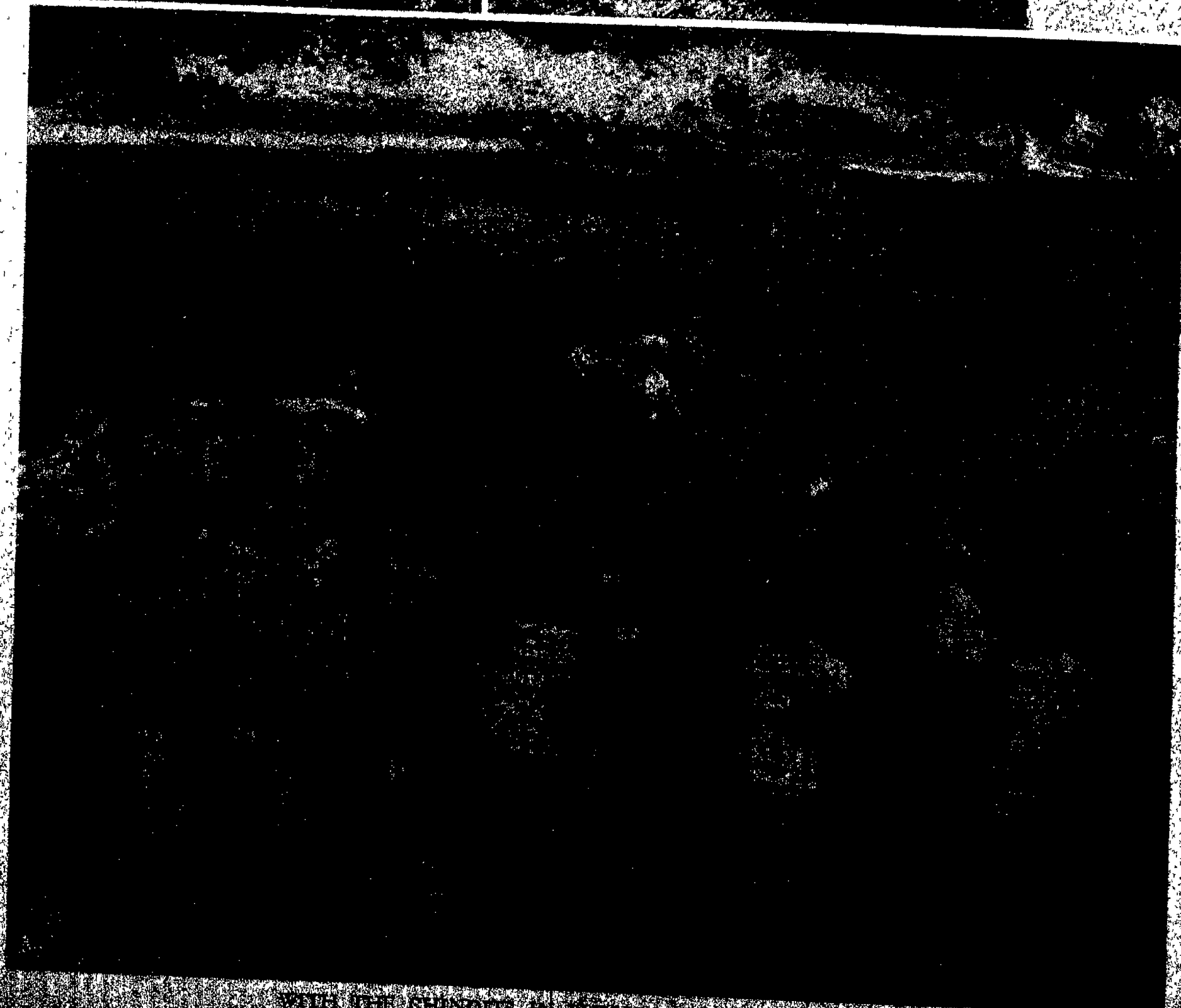
General Sir Archibald Wavell, G.C.B., G.C. was appointed Commander-in-Chief of the 14th Army in January 1943. He was a distinguished soldier and statesman, and he played a key role in the Burma campaign. He was a member of the British aristocracy, and he was a close friend of Winston Churchill. He was a brave and capable leader, and he was a great inspiration to his troops. He was a man of great integrity and honor, and he was a true hero of the war.



THE CHINDITS AND THEIR LEADER

1. 'Chief Chindit' Brigadier Orde Charles Wingate, D.S.O. (right), explaining his plans just before the Chindits marched into Burma. Some account of their exploits is given in the opposite page. 2. A signal section of the R.A.F. attached to one of the Chindit columns establishes contact with base by radio. 3. Elephants as well as mules were used for transport, and both British and Gurkha soldiers were trained by Burmese mahouts to manage the great beasts. 4. Field-Marshal Sir Archibald Wavell inspects the Chindits before they start. He specially selected Wingate to lead the Long Range Penetration Group—nick-named 'Chindits'—in their campaign behind the enemy lines in Burma.



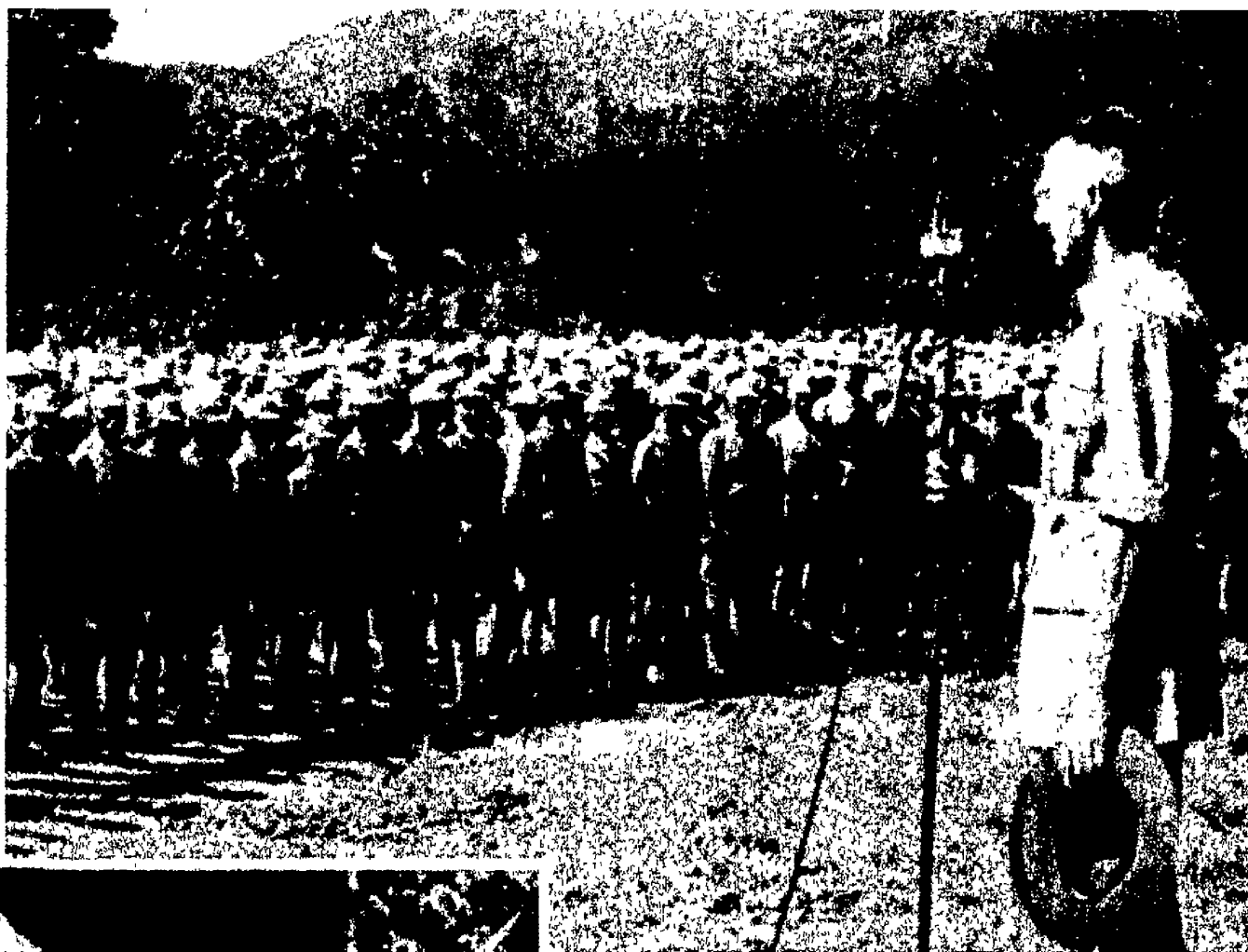


WITH THE CHINOPS IN A RAY

The photograph shows a close-up of a person's face, wearing a dark cap or hat. The image is very dark and grainy, with high contrast.

a Japanese transport column of 100 men. They put the column to flight, killing 15 of the enemy by shotgun or grenade and wounding many more. A Chin village schoolmaster with five companions ambushed 40 Japanese whose surprise was so complete that they put up no defence at all. The various frontier tribesmen, with little military backing, had indeed made it possible for many square miles of north Burma territory to be denied to the enemy. Their determination, rising out of the first torpor prevalent after the British retreat, had grown in daring and ingenuity. With the opportunity of getting again into touch with British forces they asked for arms.

So, in penetrating into enemy country, the Chindits knew that the jungle was



GENERAL STILWELL AND HIS CHINESE TROOPS

Lt.-General Joseph W. Stilwell built up a Chinese army in India to fight in Burma. Here he is addressing a body of Chinese troops in training. Left, Chinese scouts under Gen. Stilwell's command advancing with fixed bayonets through the jungle in the Naga Hills. Head-and-shoulder hoods and puttees to the knee protect them against the noxious insects of the forests.

Photos, Planet News; Keystone



not entirely unfriendly. They had to swim rivers and plod along narrow, perilous jungle tracks. Their rations were supplemented by mule soup (only one mule returned with them to India), horse liver, python steak, roast elephant and banana leaves. Their column began to reach the railway joining Mandalay to Myitkina early in March and their attacks on that line—they cut it in 75 places and destroyed four bridges—lasted until the middle of the month. Instead of moving back as the Japanese expected, the Chindits then went farther south to within striking distance of main enemy bases. This had the desired effect of provoking a large concentration of enemy forces, on which the Chindits, according to their training code, dispatched their air-tr, to put it technically, carried out a dispersal—and had returned to their grove to their starting point by May 15.

losses which they inflicted on the enemy. To begin with, they exploded the notion of Japanese superiority in jungle warfare. Fantastic stories of Malaya and the Burma retreat had created a picture of an almost supernatural uncanniness in the enemy which, never accepted by British or Indian troops, had yet been naively sponsored by bewildered commentators in armchairs at home and abroad. In the South-West Pacific MacArthur's men had already pricked the bubble. In Burma Wingate repeated the process. His verdict was: "Although incapable of the sombre and humourless self-immolation of the Japanese, the British soldier can nevertheless beat him on his own chosen ground, provided he gives scope to his greater intellectual powers and stronger character."

Wingate's strategy assumed, on the basis of the Japanese occupation of Burma, that the Japanese would be unable to

the general feeling that the United Nations were "fighting for something that means more than the severe and macabre ideals of the Axis." That was why he was able to say, "To the Burmese, and in especial to the brave and devoted Burma Rifles who went with us, must belong the main credit for what success we enjoyed."

That achievement was bound to have immense influence on the course of larger and wider planned operations for the recovery of Burma when the time came.

Aims of the Japanese in Burma

Ruthless exploitation and untiring propaganda characterized the Japanese occupation. Its four aims were to win Burmese co-operation; to destroy British influence; to persuade the Burmans that the British would never return; to bring Burma within the so-called "Co-Prosperity" sphere. On August 1, 1942, an announcement of the granting of independence to Burma had undoubted influence in reconciling some Burmese, especially the politically minded urban classes. But they were in a minority. The usually passive country folk were not moved by the announcement. But the political classes, who were not moved by the announcement, were not moved by the announcement. But the political classes, who were not moved by the announcement, were not moved by the announcement.

The gradual spread of economic distress testified to the immediate futility of Burma's dubious partnership in Japanese co-prosperity. The advantages

Japan's Idea of Independence

of military success—and Japanese propaganda did not fail to stress the failure of the Arakan campaign as well as the departure of the Chindits—were offset by economic stringency. The idea of rooting out British influence faded before the practical need of maintaining British law and procedure. But above all the Japanese—as in Manchuria, Formosa and Korea—could not shake off their conception of themselves as a “super-race.” Cajolery of the powerful Buddhist hierarchy by religious broadcasts and donations did not find support in the day-to-day occasions of the army of occupation. The stabling of horses in pagodas, building latrines in shrines, ill-treating monks and violating the sanctity of monasteries, and outrages committed against the population generally, gave the Burmese a lurid slant on Japan's idea of independence.

The campaigns of the spring of 1943, followed by the sustained air operations through the monsoon period, cleared the way for a concerted renewal of the direct attack on Japan's Burma bases in the autumn. The surrender of Italy in September greatly eased the naval commitments of the United Nations in Europe, thus making it possible to reinforce the Royal Navy's strength in Eastern waters, although obviously the

impending invasion of Europe still made the shipping situation difficult. From the north of the Burma frontier to the southern point in Arakan the positions of the United Nations and the Japanese dovetailed along a front of about a thousand miles.

The Japanese had long been preparing a so-called Indian Army of Liberation under the nominal command of the renegade Subhas Chandra Bose. It was believed to be ranged with Japanese units preparing to invade India. Facing them were British, Indians, Chinese, West Africans, Kachins and Chins. The South-East Asia Command came into being in August 1943 under Vice-Admiral Lord Louis Mountbatten, with headquarters in New Delhi (moved in 1944 to Kandy, Ceylon). The 14th Army under Lieut.-Gen. W. J. Slim, C.B.E., D.S.O.,



Havildar GAJA GHALE

Gained the 7th V.C. awarded to men of the Indian Army. Under his leadership, a platoon of young soldiers stormed and took in fierce hand-to-hand fighting Basha East Hill, a well-entrenched Japanese key position in the Chin Hills, on April 25, 1943. Though wounded by a hand grenade in the arm, chest and leg, Ghale led his men forward along a bare ridge swept by machine-gun, artillery and mortar fire.

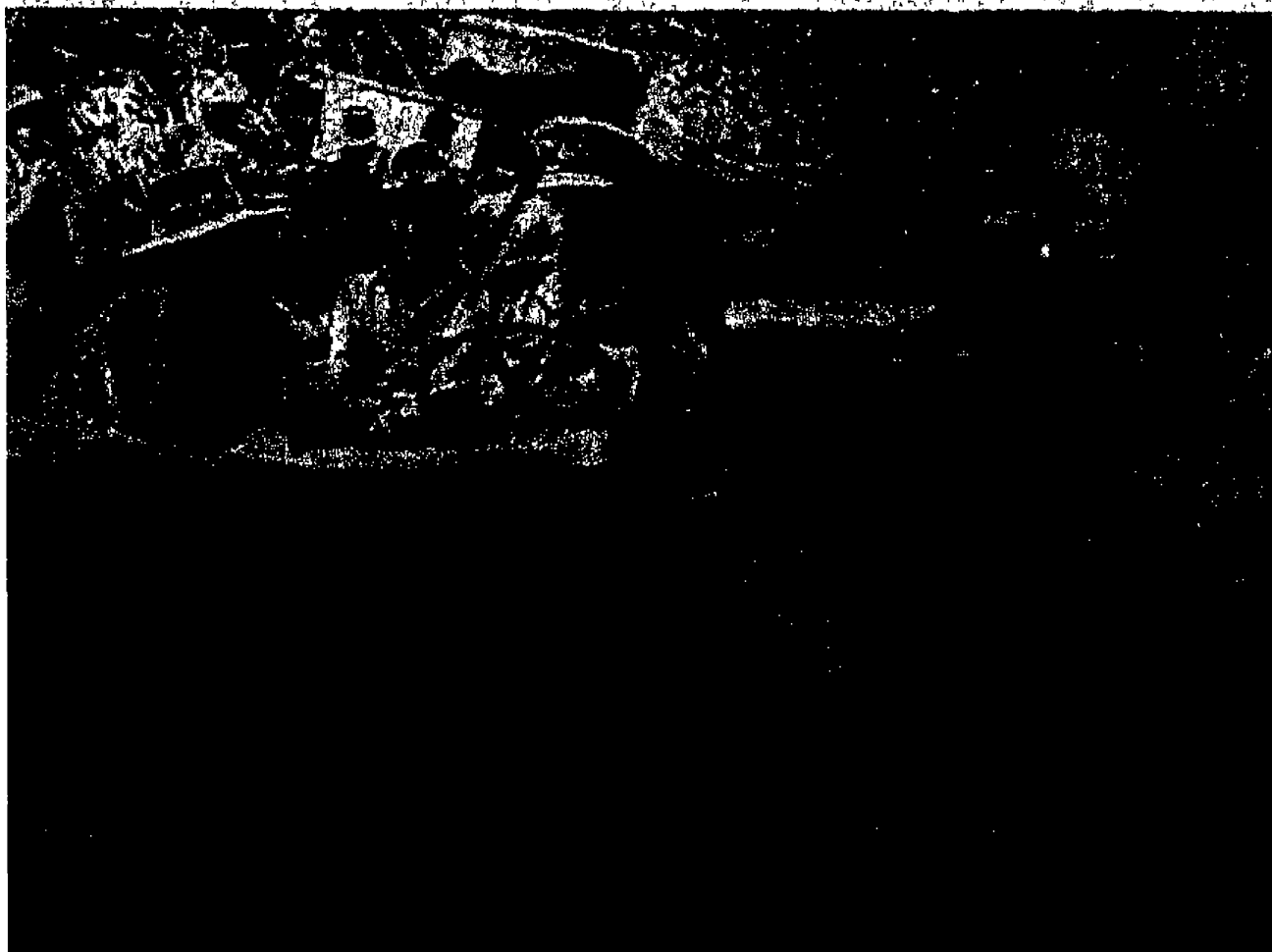
Havildar PARKASH SINGH

Received the V.C. for his ‘high courage and initiative’ on two occasions: on January 6, 1943, he saved two gun crews whose carriers had been put out of action and their ammunition exhausted; on January 19 he rescued a carrier carrying its own and another crew; then drove out again, and towed to safety another carrier containing two wounded men, all under heavy fire, on his own initiative.

SUPREME ALLIED COMMANDER VISITS THE BURMA FRONT

Vice-Admiral Lord Louis Mountbatten was appointed Supreme Allied Commander of the South-East Asia Command in August 1943; he was promoted Admiral in September. Towards the end of the year he visited the Burma front, where he inspected officers and men of the Navy, Army and Air Force, and British nurses. He is here seen driving a jeep in the Arakan forward area.

Photo, British Official



M.C., was the force chiefly responsible for the defence of India against Japanese invasion from Burma, and for penetrating to link up with Lt.-General Stilwell's American and Chinese forces which, moving in through the Naga Hills, began to make their way up the Hukawng Valley.

Events were thus developing towards the end of the year. But the problem of Burma's rescue from Japanese hands could not be solved by land and air action alone. Until the United Nations could release the full weight of their sea-power and launch combined operations against Lower Burma, it was not possible to aim at more than the establishment of a link with harassed China and the maintenance of a loosely knit front against possible Japanese attacks on India.

Meanwhile, in order to be ready for ultimate re-entry into Burma, the Government of Burma, with headquarters at Simla, proceeded with its task which in February 1943 had been outlined by Mr. Amery as designed (1) to establish an organization to meet the requirements of the military authorities in the operations for the recovery of the country and effect the Indian cooperation in hastening the return of the Government; (2) to coordinate the civil administration and reconstruction and to provide a framework for the future development of the country.

Combined Operations Required

CHINA ENTERS HER SEVENTH YEAR OF WAR

On the seventh day of the seventh month of 1943, China passed into her seventh year of war. Growing stringency of economic conditions; successful defensive operations on all fronts against the Japanese; expanding and encouraging contacts, at home and abroad, with her Allies: these are the salient features of Mr. Peter Hume's record of China's continued heroic resistance to the aggressor during 1943. The events of 1942 were set down in Chapter 230

IN 1943 China found herself increasingly pressed by the rigours of the almost total blockade which the Japanese were able to impose after the Allied withdrawal from Burma in May 1942. At the same time 1943 was a year in which China's international position and stature were greatly enhanced by the action of her major Allies, who in



CHINA'S CHIEF OF STAFF

General Ho Ying-chin, Chief of Staff of the Military Council of China and China's Minister of War, took part in the discussions on Allied war plans held in Chungking and in New Delhi immediately after the 'unconditional surrender' conference at Casablanca Jan. 14-24, 1943. Photo, Pictorial Press

other sectors of the Far Eastern and Pacific battle zones were already beginning to go over to the offensive and were able to make it clear to the Chinese people that the expulsion of the enemy from China's soil was a major aim of Allied strategy. The new feeling of moral integration with the general Allied cause after years of bitter and lonely struggle was a vital factor in maintaining the always steady morale of the Chinese fighting men and women under the immediate stress of the enemy's physical onslaught.

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China and the United States in Washington. The actual signature of the treaties was in fact only the culmination of a movement on the part of the Western democracies, initiated by Sir Austen Chamberlain in 1926, towards according the Chinese Republic that measure of full sovereignty denied to the corrupt and decadent Manchu dynasty by force of Western arms in the 19th century. The final negotiations which led to the new treaties were opened following an Anglo-American declaration of intent on October 9, 1942 (see page 2295). Nevertheless, the impact on the Chinese people of the news that treaties of such importance had actually been signed, thus ending a century of what they rightly or wrongly had come to regard as "national humiliation," was of the first importance in strengthening China's relation with her Allies.

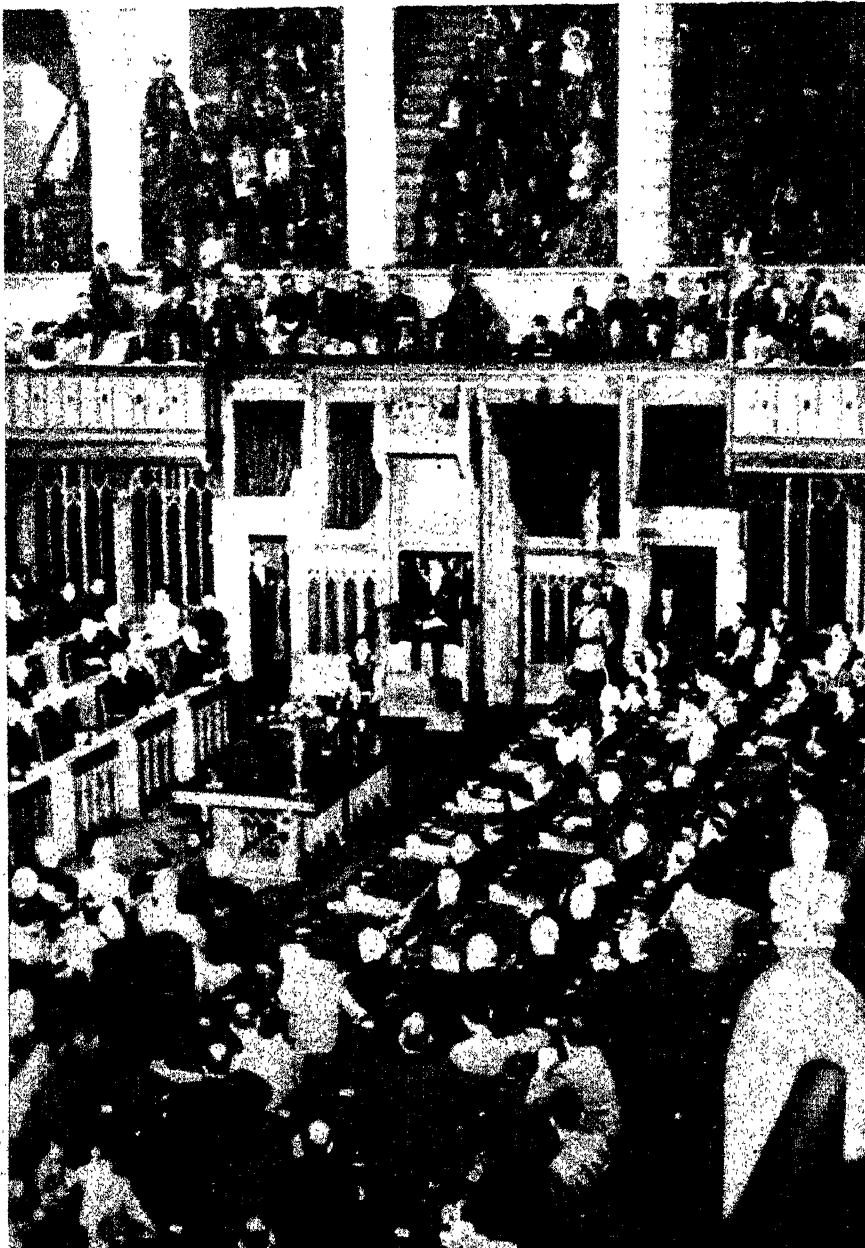
Of more immediately military significance than this long-delayed political step was the visit paid to Chungking by Field-Marshal Sir John Dill and Lt-General Henry H. Arnold as

representatives respectively of Mr. Churchill and President Roosevelt immediately after the meeting of the British and American leaders at Casablanca in late January. Disappointment in Chungking that a Chinese representative had not attended the Casablanca Conference was largely dissipated by the arrival of these two high officers to confer with Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek on the decisions reached. A series of conferences in Chungking was followed by the visit to India of General Ho Ying-chin, Chinese Minister of War and Chief of General Staff, and Lt.-General Yu Ta-wei, head of the Ordnance Department of the Chinese Army. These officers, together with Field-Marshal Dill, General Arnold and General Somerville, Chief of the U.S. Army Services of Supply (who had also been at Casablanca) engaged in discussions with Field-Marshal Sir Archibald Wavell, then C-in-C. India, on questions of joint operations against Japan and of developing the India-China supply line (see illus., page 2663). Subsequently Generals Ho and Yu visited



WORLDWIDE

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CHINA APPEALS TO CANADA'S PARLIAMENT

During her tour of America in 1943, Mme. Chiang Kai-shek addressed a joint assembly of Canada's House of Commons and Senate in the Parliament building at Ottawa. She was the first woman, not a member of Parliament, to be accorded this privilege. In the course of her speech she said: 'Through your welding successfully two peoples into one strong and harmonious nation, the world has much to learn in universal brotherhood.'

camp in Eastern India, where a substantial force of Chinese soldiers, some of them veterans of the first Burma campaign and others flown to India in transport aircraft from the Chinese fronts, was in training under United States officers. General Ho expressed satisfaction with the modern weapons being supplied to these troops and their progress in learning the use of them.

Another visit, of great political importance, was that paid by Mme. Chiang Kai-shek to the United States. Mme. Chiang reached the U.S.A. in November 1942, but immediately entered hospital for medical treatment

necessitated by a war injury suffered in Shanghai in 1937. On her recovery in February, the Generalissimo's talented wife undertook a series of speaking engagements in the major cities of the United States. She addressed both the U.S. Senate and the House of Representatives in Washington, and wherever she spoke in the ensuing months she paid tribute to the war effort of the United States, Britain, and the Soviet Union, and expressed appreciation of the importance of these countries' struggle against Germany. Nevertheless, she also stressed the disparity of the material resources made available by the Allies for the war against Ger-

many and for that against Japan, which China considered she was fighting almost alone and with bare hands, while in fact Japan was as great a menace to all the United Nations as was Germany. The deep impression made on the American people by her personality was reflected in a substantial swing of public opinion against the accepted Allied strategy of first concentrating the main forces against Germany while limiting the scale of operations in the Far East. This swing was especially encouraged and sustained by the formerly Isolationist Press, where the slogan "Beat Japan first" was much used as an anti-Roosevelt and anti-British weapon. Identification by certain elements of their views with Mme. Chiang's led to some deterioration in Sino-British relations, and it was proposed that Mme. Chiang should visit Britain to correct this inadvertent impression.

Renewed ill-health made such a visit impossible; but in July Dr. T. V. Soong, Chinese Minister for Foreign Affairs, paid an official visit to London as guest of the British Government.

Dr. Soong,
in
Britain

In the words of a communiqué issued after his departure: "During his stay he had a number of informal conversations with the Prime Minister, the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, other Ministers of the Crown and high British military, naval and air authorities. An extraordinary meeting of the Pacific Council was convoked under the chairmanship of the Prime Minister at which the strategical situation in the Far East was reviewed. In the course of these meetings, which were held in a most cordial atmosphere, views were exchanged on many aspects of the war both in the East and in the West. Post-war issues also came under discussion. There was complete agreement on the need for the rigorous prosecution of the war until the utter defeat of Germany and Japan has been achieved and for the organization of measures thereafter to secure a stable world peace."

Dr. Soong stayed in Britain for three weeks, and during that time was able to meet the British Press, to which he frankly explained the difficulties of China's position, and to broadcast to the British people. On both occasions he stressed China's debt to Russia for her freely given assistance up to the time Germany attacked her, the extent and significance of his country's six-year resistance to Japan, and her hopes for post-war co-operation with Britain and the other democratic nations.

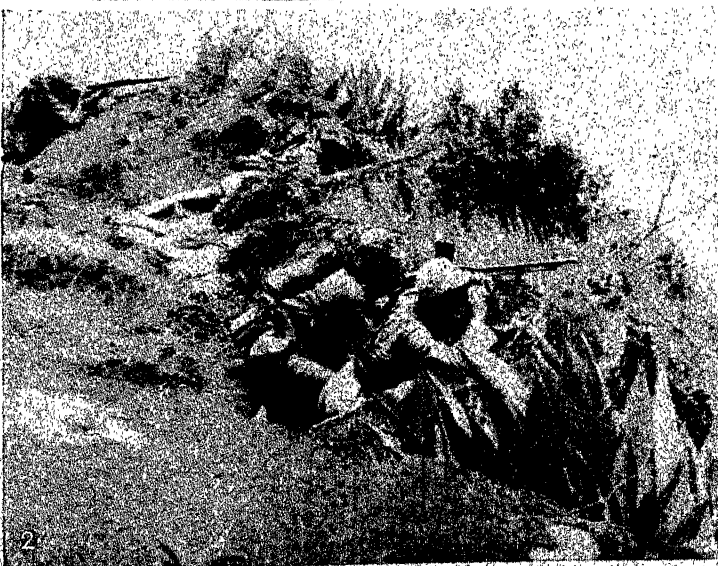
Immediately after leaving Britain, Dr. Soong attended another conference

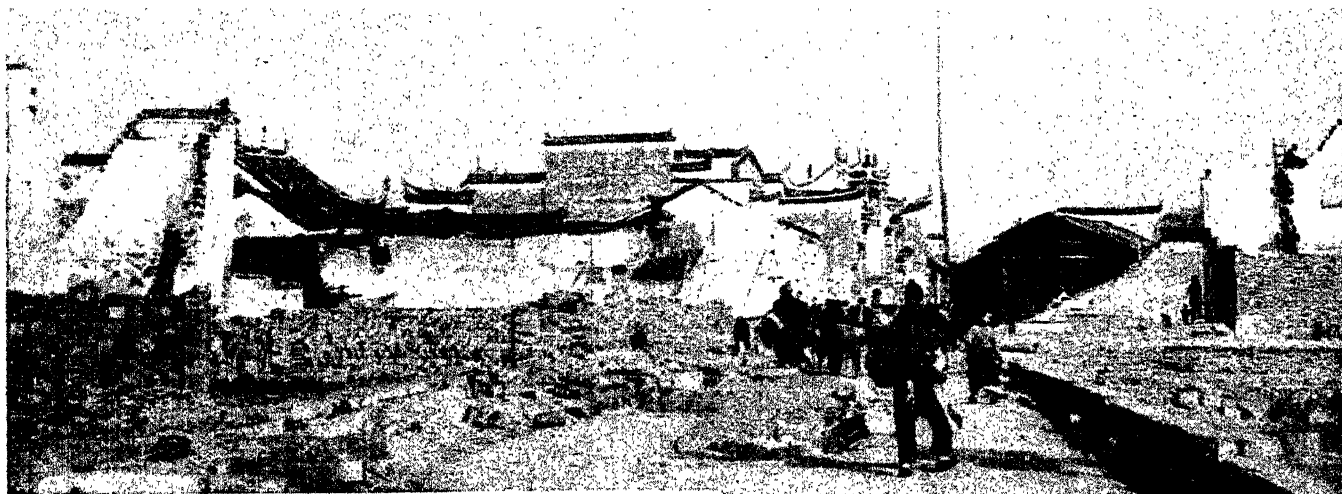


CHINA HOLDS SALWEEN ATTACKS

1. A typical stretch of the upper Salween River, scene of fierce fighting during 1943. The Burma Road, some 80 miles inside Yunnan province, crosses the Salween by the Haitung Bridge which, after being in Japanese hands, was retaken by the Chinese, supported by U.S. fighters, in November 1943. 2. Chinese machine-gunners in a nest overlooking the Salween River. 3. Chinese wounded in the Salween battles being tended by nurses and orderlies just behind the lines.

Photos, Planet News





IN THE 'RICE BOWL' OF CHINA

In their attempt to conquer Hunan, China's 'rice-bowl,' the Japanese reached Changteh, its chief centre, which they took on December 3, 1943, after a 15 days' bloody siege—fewer than 300 of the Chinese 57th Division defending the city survived. But, helped by U.S. Mitchells, and despite further heavy losses, the Chinese recaptured it on December 9 and continued to drive forward. The city was reduced to ashes. 1. Civilians return to ruined Yiyang in northern Hunan. 2. Chinese officers plan the re-taking of Changteh. 3. A street in Changteh after its recapture.

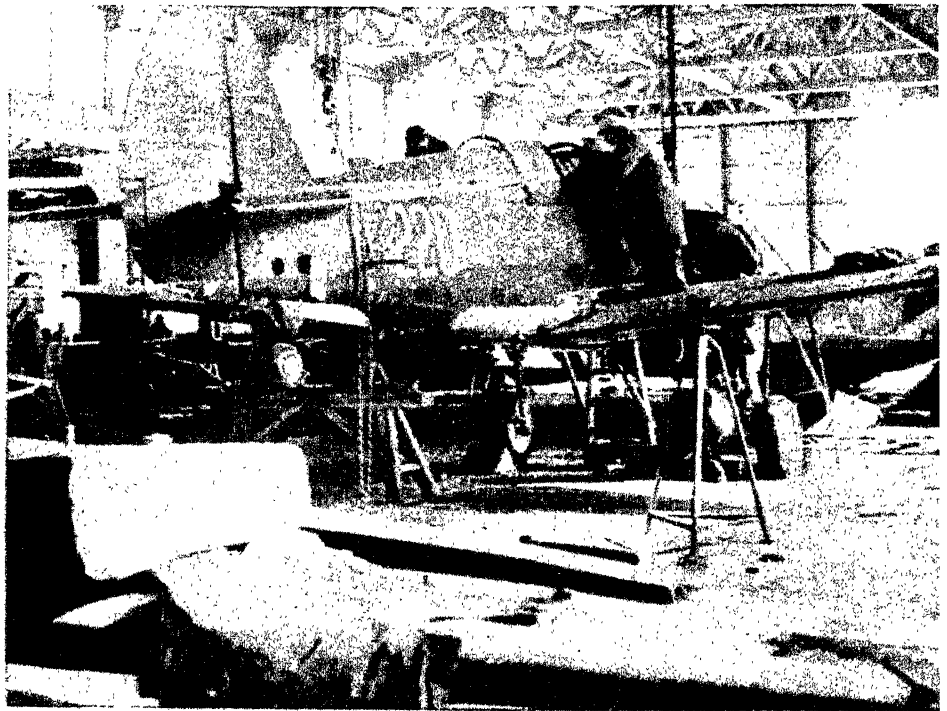


of the utmost importance to the United Nations—that at Quebec, where for the first time a Chinese representative was present with the United States President and the British Prime Minister for talks which, in the words of the communiqué issued after the conference, “turned very largely upon the war against Japan and the bringing of effective aid to China”—a declaration that helped to dispel many half-felt doubts in China about the determination of the western Allies to pursue the Pacific War while that in Europe remained undecided.

A positive and immediate result of this conference at Quebec was the organization of the South-East Asia Command under Vice-Admiral Lord Louis Mountbatten (promoted Admiral a few weeks later). Creation of this Command to fill the gap in the front against Japan between the South-West Pacific zone, under General MacArthur, and the continental Asiatic zone, under Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, was enthusiastically received in Chungking, and Admiral Mountbatten found a warm welcome among the Chinese people when he visited Generalissimo Chiang shortly after his appointment was announced.

In this way the stage was set for the adhesion of the Chinese government to the declaration of policy on waging the war and organizing the peace made at the October Conference of the Foreign Ministers of China, Great Britain, U.S.A., and U.S.S.R. in Moscow (see page 2709); and for General Chiang Kai-shek's participations in discussions held at Cairo between him, President Roosevelt and Mr. Winston Churchill in November. In Moscow, where discussions turned primarily on the affairs of Europe, China was not represented throughout the meetings, but it was a development of particular significance, in view of the Soviet Union's continuing neutrality in the war against Japan, that the Chinese ambassador in Moscow was invited to sign with Molotov, Eden and Hull the most far-reaching of the declarations in which the conference resulted: that dealing with the creation of machinery for ensuring post-war security.

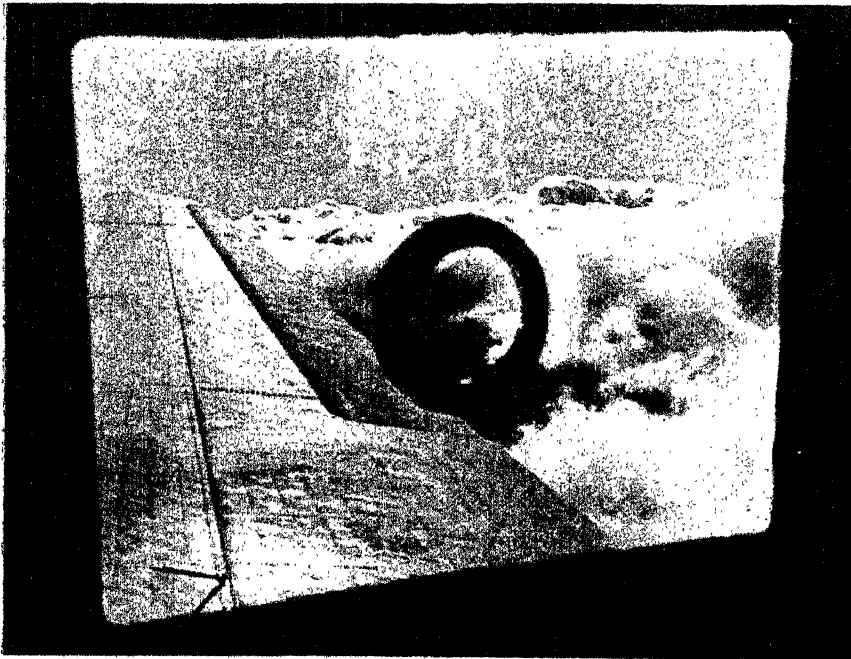
Apart from the vital strategic planning for joint prosecution of the war against Japan in which high officers of all Services from Britain, China and the United States were engaged during the conference at Cairo, this meeting was especially notable for the long-term political declaration in which it resulted (see Historic Document No. 267,



AMERICAN PLANES IN CHINA'S BATTLE

American aircraft did valuable service for China in her battle with the Japanese, and Chinese workers helped to keep them in the air. Above, a repair hangar at one U.S. air station in China where skilled Chinese are overhauling and repairing fighters so that they can resume action. Below, Chinese workers, watched by their fellows, unload boxes of .50 calibre machine-gun ammunition for the use of the U.S. Army 14th Air Force serving in China.





OVER THE HIMALAYAN 'HUMP'

Transport planes carried goods, military and civil leaders, and technicians over the Himalayas to China, deprived after the cutting of the Burma Road of all surface contact with her Allies. The windows of these aircraft were fitted with plugs (above) which could be removed in case of attack, leaving apertures through which tommy-guns could be fired. On the 'hump' route, the planes travelled so high that oxygen masks were essential (below).

Photos, Keystone; Associated Press



page 2636). This joint declaration embodied views on which all Chinese had always had the strongest feelings, but on which they had had some doubts as to whether full support in what they considered their legitimate claims could be secured from China's allies, and in particular from Britain. The association of Mr. Churchill with the Cairo declaration for this reason greatly helped in clearing old fears and suspicions from China's international outlook.

Vitally important as these meetings and evidences of Allied solidarity were, they have to be set against a less satisfactory picture of the condition of the Chinese Army and people as a result of six years of continuous war on their own soil; and of the Japanese blockade. Lightly felt at first, this became intense during 1943. The very numerous Chinese Army suffered from a desperate shortage of arms and equipment, especially of the heavier kind, and from a state

very near to immobility, since neither transport vehicles nor the fuel on which to run them were available in any quantity. Such limitations made it possible for the Chinese to take little offensive action to clear their territory, and meant in addition that even active defensive fighting imposed a severe strain on the country's sparse resources for the needs of modern mechanical war. Nevertheless, during the year, the Chinese staved off several determined attempts to force them out of the war.

In February the Japanese announced that they now proposed to take "all conceivable measures to crush Chungking" and simultaneously launched offensives in Central, South-East and South-West China. After a month of hard fighting all they could claim was the occupation of Kwangchowwan (a small coastal area in Kwangtung Province, which had been leased by China to France since 1898 and which Vichy complaisance now permitted China's enemy to seize without opposition), and certain local but important advances in the middle Yangtze sector west of Hankow. Japanese attacks across the Salween River from Burma into Yunnan Province and northward from Canton up the Canton-Hankow railway were both thrown back.

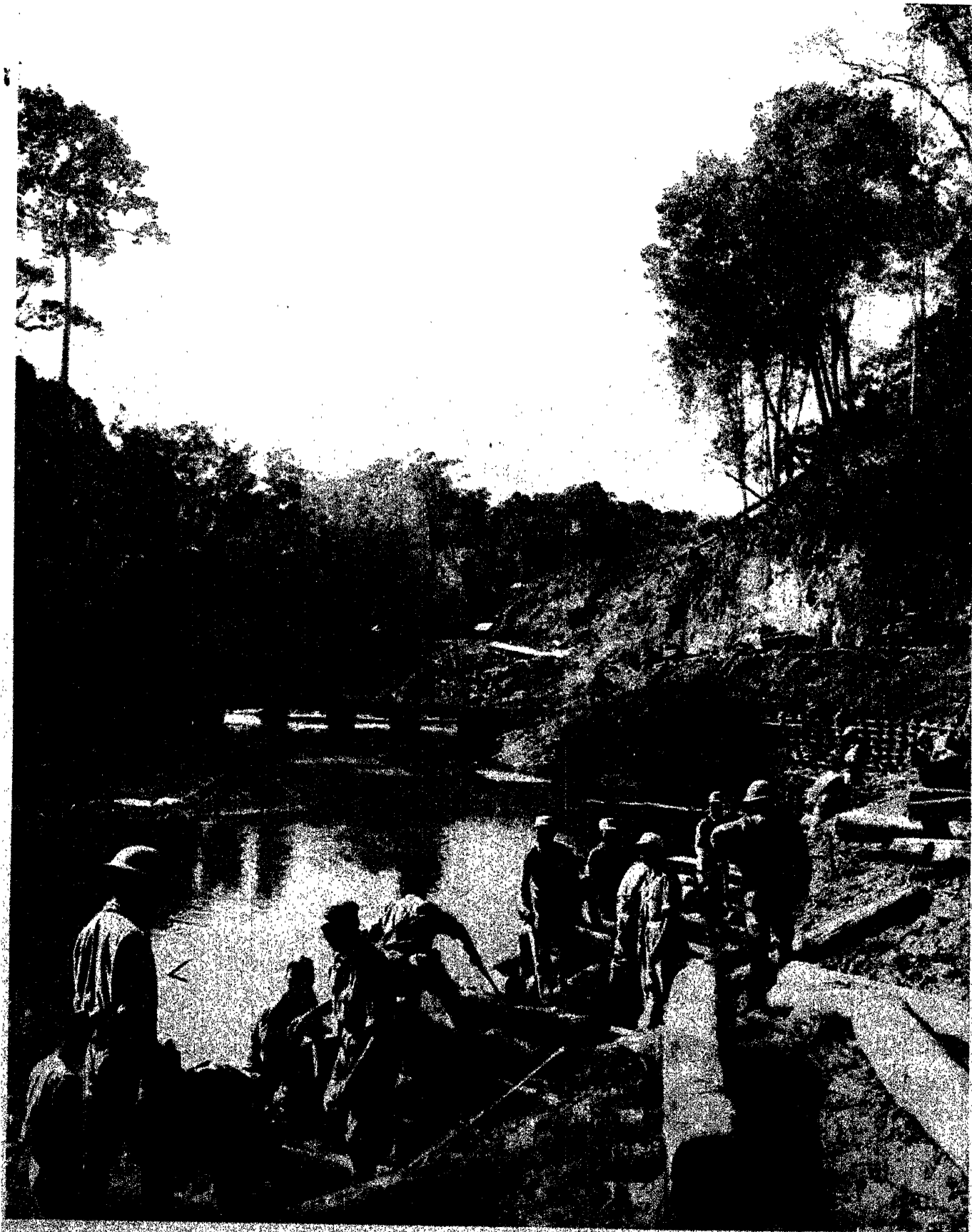
The middle Yangtze advances provided, however, a valuable springboard from which the next major Japanese offensive of the year was launched in May. Once again the Japanese spoke of inflicting total defeat on China and of advancing on Chungking. They moved westward in considerable strength (the Chinese estimated that they employed about 120,000 men) into the mountains which here guard the approaches to West China, and at first made considerable progress. But before the offensive was three weeks old the Chinese, employing tactics tested in many a similar campaign, swooped from the flanking hills to which they had retired on the enemy columns advancing up the valley roads and cut them into small segments which faced retreat or annihilation. Many of the Japanese, minus their transport and heavier equipment, got back to the starting line of their offensive, where fortified positions enabled them to blunt the impetus of the Chinese counter-assault. Many more, though, did not get back, and the toll of the retreat was greatly increased by the support given to the Chinese ground troops, on a larger scale than ever before, by American aircraft reinforcing the meagre striking power of the Chinese Air Force in repeated attacks against



THE CHIEF CHINDIT HOLDS COUNCIL

Of all the exploits which the Second Great War produced, none exceeded in skill, daring and interest that conducted in the spring of 1943 by Brigadier Orde Charles Wingate and his 'Chindits' (see page 2692). Trained under his experienced guidance, they penetrated in small groups far behind the Japanese lines in Burma, doing an amount of damage greatly in excess of their apparent strength. Here is the leader of this chosen band talking to a few of his men at an outpost on the Burma-Assam border.

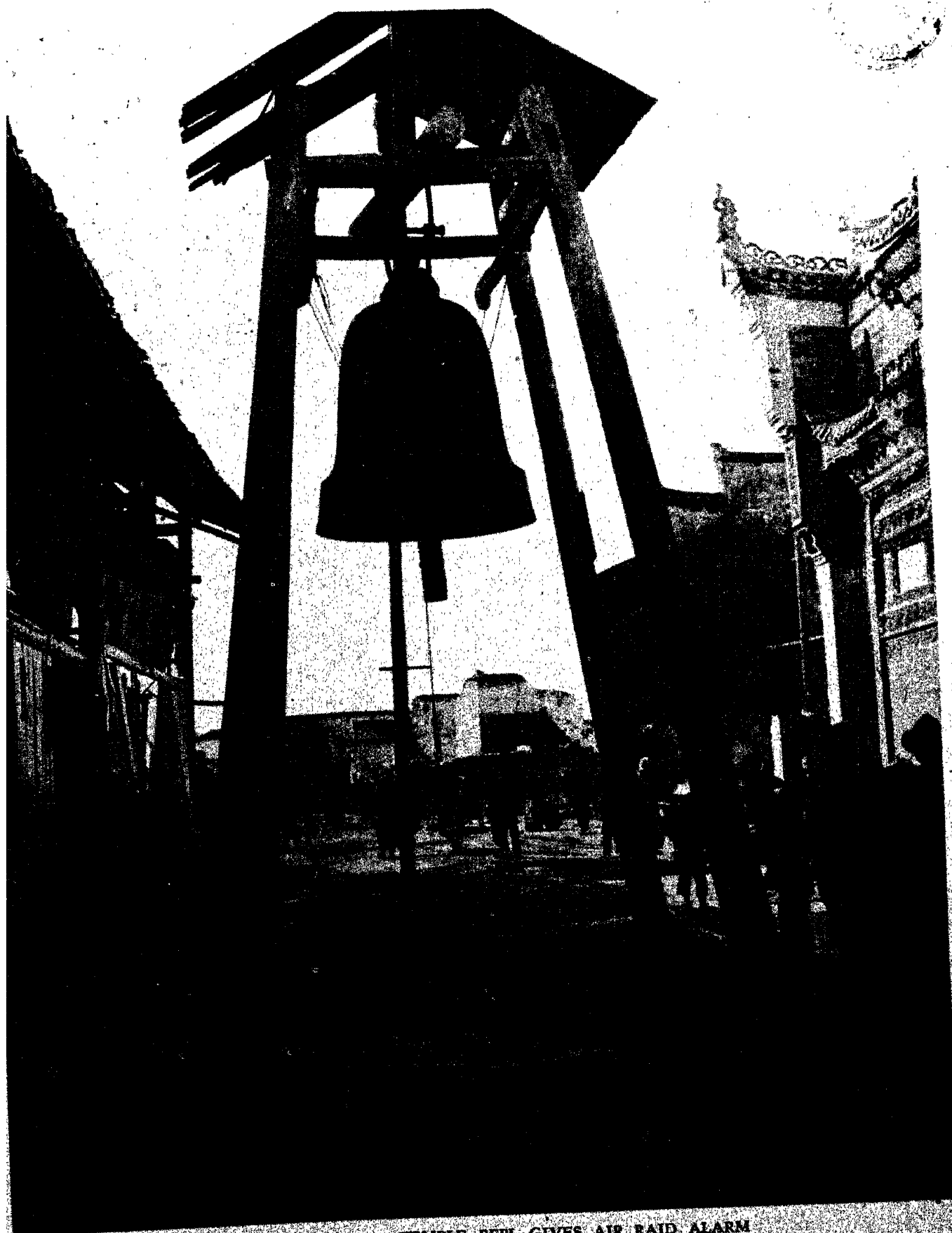
Photo, Keystone



LAYING FOUNDATIONS FOR A NEW ROAD TO CHINA

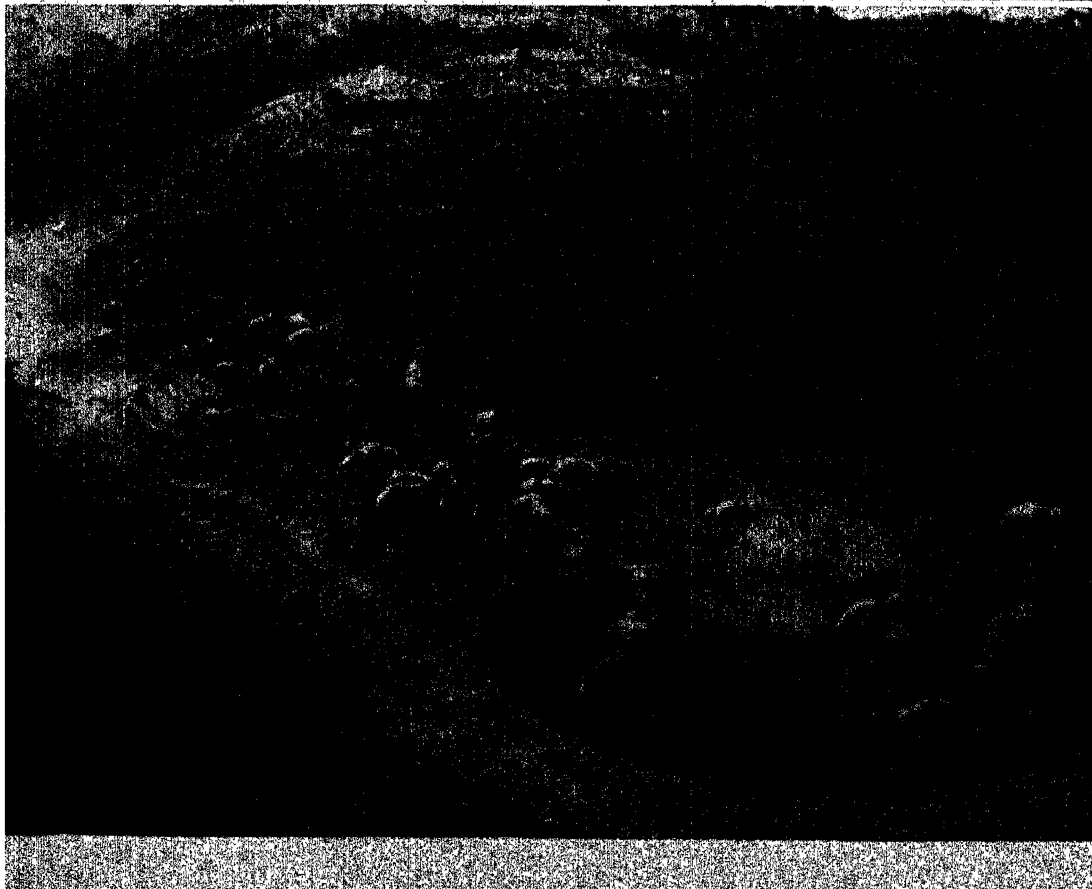
After the Japanese cut the Burma Road, a limited quantity of supplies and a restricted number of technicians still reached China from India by the airway "over the hump" of the Himalayas. But a new surface route was essential if anything like an adequate amount of war material was to reach China's hard-pressed armies; and in December 1942 work started on the Lado Road, planned to run from Ledo in Assam (India) across northern Burma through Myitkine to join the Burma Road just across the Chinese border. Here Chinese forces under American direction are laying foundations for the first part of the new road in Assam.

Photo. Keystone



TEMPLE BELL GIVES AIR RAID ALARM

Japan began to raid Chinese cities from the air in 1937, and the Chinese authorities had to improvise alarm signals. Among them was this old temple bell: it gave the alert to the little city of Yiyang, twice bombed during the battle in 1943 for Changteh, in Hunan province—China's 'rice bowl'—described in page 2707. Citizens returning to Yiyang after the tide of war had temporarily retreated from their home are shown in page 2708.

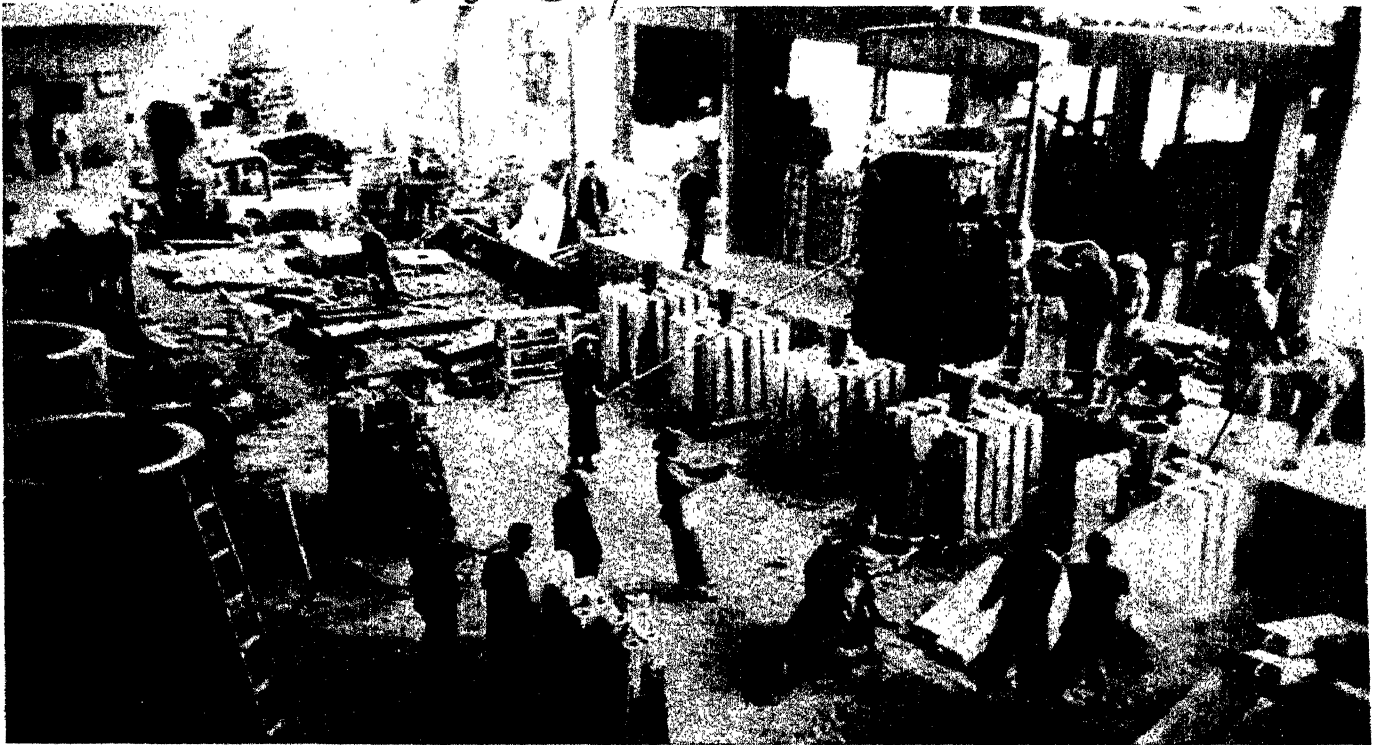


CHINESE TROOPS IN YUNNAN

Fighting on the Salween River in the Burma-China border area went on with varying fortune during 1943; but at the end of the year the Japanese -- invading Yunnan Province from Burma -- had been thrown back west of the river. Above, Chinese reserve troops moving along the Burma Road in Yunnan to relieve men on the Salween front. Left, Sappers mining a section of the road threatened by the Japanese advance. (See also illus., page 2699; and map, page 2692.)

Photos, Plans News

26189



INDUSTRIALIZATION COMES TO CHINA

Although nearly half a century had elapsed since Chinese resistance to western penetration broke down, when the Japanese invasion began in 1937, China had developed no heavy industries in the interval. After she was cut off from the sea by Japanese advances, she was forced in circumstances of the utmost difficulty to set up her own armament plants—or go down. Here, molten metal is poured into moulds at one of China's improvised iron foundries.

the vulnerable retreating enemy columns. Japanese casualties were estimated by the Chinese High Command at 40,000, though some foreign observers would considerably reduce this figure.

There was no further major movement on the 2,500-mile China front until the beginning of November, when the Japanese launched another offensive

in the middle Yangtze area—the scene of their summer defeat—but with a different objective. This time they pushed to the south instead of to the west, capturing and holding for a week the important communications centre of Changteh, which is also in the heart of China's richest rice-producing area. The successes of the campaign, which were undeniably important, were also short lived. Once again the Chinese harried the flanks and rear of the columns pushing through their territory; once again they and the United States Army 14th Air Force inflicted heavy damage on a disorganized retreating force whose supply lines had been attenuated into nothingness; once again the Japanese found themselves after a few weeks of costly campaigning back behind the fortifications from which they had set out.

Thus the Chinese in the field had a year of defensive success. The time for a general onslaught against the occupier of their lands was not yet; the building up of sufficient strength in terms of modern warfare for such a great military enterprise had to await the unachieved reopening of a land-

sea-link between non-industrial China and her arms-producing Allies. Nevertheless, the balance of campaigning was not unfavourable, except insofar as Japan's material losses were more easily replaceable than China's. Nor does the brief story of these few battles give the full account of the fighting involved in China's maintenance of her dual military role: holding her front and pinpricking her enemy. According to the annual report of General Ho Ying-chin, Minister of War, 5,427 major or minor engagements were fought during 1943 between elements of the Chinese Army and of the 39 divisions Japan is stated in the same report to have maintained during the year in China itself, and in the neighbouring territories of Burma, Siam and Indo-China. In these engagements 160,000 Japanese are claimed to have been killed or wounded, while Chinese losses, though considerable, were less.

The venues of these sporadic engagements, many of them no more than trench raids or armed patrols, were scattered up and down the front from the Mongolian border in the north to the immediate neighbourhood of Shanghai on the east coast and Yunnan in the far south-west. Only in the last of these sectors, that on the Burma border, can it be said that the year's fighting was of more than tactical significance. Here the Japanese through the year

launched a number of spoiling attacks, evidently in apprehensive anticipation of future joint Allied action from India and Yunnan to clear northern Burma and reopen China's land supply route. At what point the enemy first learnt of General Stilwell's road-building advance from Ledo in north-east Assam (India) is not clear; only in November was any hint of such a move released to the Allied Press. It is also unlikely that the Japanese had learnt before the end of 1943 of the extent to which General Stilwell's "Y" Force was being built up on the east bank of the Salween for an eventual co-ordinated attack into northern Burma in support of the Ledo Road advance.

Nevertheless, the Japanese throughout the year showed acute anxiety about this sector. In the first five months of the year they launched four attacks against the detached Chinese forces which had been operating west of the Salween since the fall of Burma, and in October, as the monsoon ended, an offensive even wider in scope than those which had preceded it was aimed at the sealing-off of all possible ferry points through which the Chinese could attack Burma across the turbulent Salween. None of these operations achieved more than temporary success, and by the

Operations
in the
Salween Area



GENERALISSIMO AND WAR ORPHAN

China entered on her seventh year of war on July 7, 1943; yet here is her leader, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, still able to smile broadly as he talks to a young war orphan at a reception he held in Chungking, the wartime capital of Free China, on July 21, 1943. The Chinese Government had a special concern for the care of China's thousands of war orphans.

Photo, Keystone

end of the year the Chinese were again in possession of several useful springboards for the assault which awaited only the development to a predetermined stage of the offensive from India. In addition Chinese troops continued to be active west of the Salween, paving the way for future larger scale action.

Domestically, the year 1943 was for China one of great and growing economic difficulty and of increasing political war-strain, but one of noteworthy constitutional development.

Growing Economic Difficulties

In the economic field, the inflation initiated by early Japanese successes in 1937-38 and checked by international action of the democracies during the subsequent period of growing support of China, was again getting out of hand. Prime cause of this dangerous development was the completion of the Japanese blockade of China by the occupation of Hongkong and Burma and the resultant disappearance from the market of manufactured consumer goods which non-industrial China had always imported. Contributory factors were a disastrous famine in Honan Province in the north-east, which directly affected some 10,000,000 people; the traditional tendency of the Chinese merchant in difficult times to hoard goods against better days; and the presence in China of increasing numbers of United States servicemen possessed of plenty of U.S. dollars which were eagerly snapped up by the unscrupulous at rates out of all relation to the official exchange.

Price control measures were applied

by the Government in January, but were successful only in part and in limited city areas. That there was not general starvation was due solely to the nature of Chinese economy, in which the peasants, who form more than 80 per cent of the population, live on their own produce without being vitally concerned with money, and to the Government's system of collecting taxes in kind from the food producer and distributing the accumulated rice or

grain on a ration basis at regulated prices to civil servants, teachers, students and other elements of the urban population which are not self-supporting, as well as to the army. This system, which has so far kept China going, can be disturbed only by serious crop failure in some given area, since transport is lacking to convey food in any great

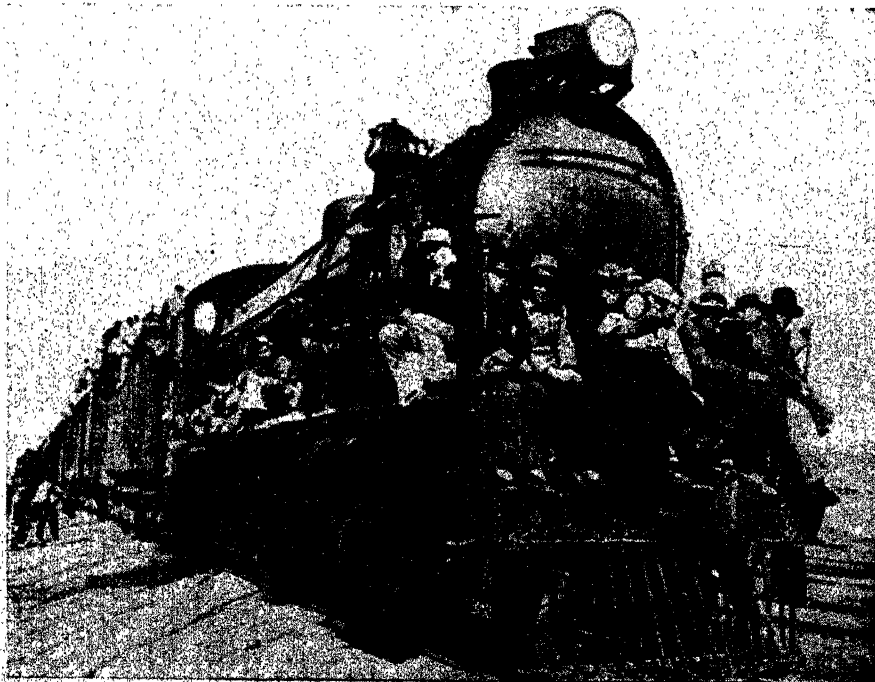
quantity from one area to another. This was the case in Honan in the spring and in Kwangtung, in South-East China, in the autumn. Although, ironically, the harvest in China taken as a whole was extremely good, both these areas suffered severely from local failures, and the war situation prevented either large-scale introduction of emergency food supplies or efficient evacuation from the affected districts, both of which are in the front-line zone.

Developments in China's internal political structure during the year included an important change in the status of the President of the Republic.

After the death of President Lin Sen on July 31 after 11 years in office, Generalissimo

Chiang Kai-shek Elected President

Chiang Kai-shek was elected to succeed him, and at the same time the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang (National People's Party), China's supreme political authority, authorized a substantial redrafting of the law governing the functions of the President. Hitherto these had been of a mainly formal character, analogous to those performed by Presidents of France under the Third Republic, and it was specifically laid down that the President as such had no executive authority in the conduct of military or foreign affairs. Under the amended law Chiang Kai-shek, the new President, became *ex*



FAMINE REFUGEES FROM HONAN PROVINCE

Bad harvests in two districts added famine to the difficulties, dangers and privations of the Chinese people during 1943. Honan Province, near China's north-east front line, was one of the worst affected areas; the Provincial Governor stated that millions would die before the next harvest unless help reached them. Here is a train loaded with refugees. Many huddled on the slippery roofs or jammed between the cars fell from such trains as they moved.

officio Commander-in-Chief of the land, sea, and air forces of the Republic, and was empowered to take supreme charge of its foreign relations, thus making his position somewhat akin to that of the President of the United States.

Of greater direct significance than this development was the declaration by the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee after a meeting in September

that constitutional government by democratically elected representatives of the people would be introduced into China within one year of the termination of hostilities with Japan. By this declaration the Kuomintang set a precise term to its own authority, which it derived from its leadership of the Chinese Revolution under its founder, Sun Yat-sen, and which it exercised absolutely as arbiter of the country's destiny during the period of "political tutelage" envisaged before his death by Dr. Sun as the necessary prelude to the full enjoyment of democracy by the politically untrained Chinese people.

As witness to the sincerity of this declaration, the Kuomintang ordered the establishment of a preparatory committee to create machinery for the convening at the appropriate time of a National Conference to draft a constitution for China and to put it into effect. On this committee all parties in the state were represented. Two of the committee members were leaders of the Chinese Communist Party, which in 1943 controlled, militarily and politically, a part of Shensi province in North-West China, and whose continued opposition to the Kuomintang had increased during the year as an inevitable consequence of war's stresses and long drawn-out hard-



AIR RAID ALERT IN A CHINESE TOWN

Chinese civilians walking along the banks of a canal to take shelter in the near-by hills after an air raid alarm has been sounded to warn them of the approach of Japanese aircraft. China's power of resistance in the air was much strengthened by the help of the U.S.A. 14th A.F., formed in March 1943 to replace the China Air Task Force, under the same commander, Brig.-Gen. Claire Chennault, also Chief of Staff of the Chinese air force under Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek.

ships. This opposition came at times to the pitch of local armed conflicts, although the Communist Party in 1937 had pledged the armed forces owing allegiance to it to serve under the orders of the Kuomintang-dominated National Government, and although the Party was allowed to maintain liaison officers and even a newspaper propagating its views in Chungking. Accusations and counter-accusations were exchanged between the protagonists throughout the period under review and both points of view were extensively canvassed abroad. Appointment of Communist representatives to the Constitutional Committee, combined with the categorical statement by the Kuomintang Executive that once constitutional government could be introduced all parties would have equal rights and status, did something to ease

the tension, but at the year's end this basic political difficulty was still engaging attention among China's allies.

Despite these many difficulties, China made considerable progress in planning reconstruction of the country, a movement which she put second only to resistance to Japan.

Although material hardship and isolation made 1943 perhaps the most difficult of the years during which she had resisted her enemy, the promise of the future as seen both in the successes of the United Nations on other fronts and in her own improved and heightened relations with her Allies, gave an immediate prospect of some alleviation. Although severely restricted by transport difficulties, Lease-Lend supplies from the United States were coming in in a trickle that promised before long to be a flood. The formation in February of the U.S. Army 14th Air Force on Chinese soil and the steady strengthening of that force throughout the year was valuable not only for the immediate assistance received by hard-pressed Chinese troops on the battle-fronts, but as earnest of a coming attack upon Japan. The beginning of the Ledo Road and the progress made by General Stilwell's Chinese and American forces into Upper Burma made no immediate difference to the situation, but provided positive hope for the year to come. During the year China had not lost ground militarily, had progressed politically though under stress, had maintained herself economically, and had drawn closer to the Allies who could succour her and with whom she was waiting to join in the final offensive against Japan.

**China's
Improving
Prospects**

THE MOSCOW DECLARATION OF NOVEMBER 1943

DECLARATION SIGNED BY THE FOREIGN SECRETARIES OF THE UNITED KINGDOM, THE UNITED STATES, AND THE U.S.S.R., AND THE CHINESE AMBASSADOR IN MOSCOW, AND PUBLISHED ON NOVEMBER 1, 1943.

THE Governments of the United States, the United Kingdom, the U.S.S.R., and China: united in their determination, in accordance with the declaration by the United Nations of January 1, 1942, and subsequent declarations, to continue hostilities against those Axis Powers with which they respectively are at war until such Powers have laid down their arms on the basis of unconditional surrender; conscious of their responsibility to secure the liberation of themselves and the peoples allied to them from the menace of aggression; recognizing the necessity of ensuring rapid and orderly transit from war to peace and of establishing and maintaining international peace and security with the least diversion of this world's human and economic resources for armaments; jointly declare:

1. That their united action, pledged for the prosecution of the war against their respective enemies, will be continued for the organization and maintenance of peace and security;
2. That those of them at war with a common enemy will act together in all matters relating to the surrender and disarmament of that enemy;

3. That they will take all measures deemed by them to be necessary to provide against any violation of the terms imposed on the enemy;

4. That they recognize the necessity of establishing at the earliest practicable date a general international organization, based on the principle of the sovereign equality of all peace-loving States and open to membership by all such States, large or small, for the maintenance of international peace and security;

5. That for the purpose of maintaining international peace and security pending the re-establishment of law and order and the inauguration of a system of general security they will consult with each other, and, as occasion requires, with other members of the United Nations, with a view to joint action on behalf of the community of nations;

6. That after the termination of hostilities they will not employ their military forces within the territories of other States except for the purposes envisaged in this declaration and after joint consultation; and

7. That they will confer and co-operate with one another and with other members of the United Nations to bring about a practicable general agreement with respect to the regulation of armaments in the post-war period.

Diary of the War

MARCH and APRIL, 1943

March 1, 1943. Marshal Timoshenko liberated 600 sq. miles S. and S.E. of Lake Ilmen, including Dem'yansk. R.A.F. dropped great weight of bombs on Berlin in 30-minute raid; city without gas, light or water next day. Allies reoccupied Sbeitla and Feriana (Tunisia).

March 1-5. Battle of the Bismarck Sea (New Guinea); 22 Japanese vessels all sunk by Allied aircraft.

March 3. Rzhev recaptured by Red Army. R.A.F. bomb Knaben molybdenum mines (Norway). Hamburg heavily raided by R.A.F.

March 4. Daylight attack by U.S. Fortresses on Hamm and Rotterdam.

March 5. Heavy concentrated R.A.F. night attack on Essen; 14 bombers lost. Mareth Line (Tunisia) pounded for 90 minutes by heaviest barrage since El Alamein.

March 6. Gzhatsk recaptured by Soviet troops. Heavy daylight attack by Fortresses and Liberators on Lorient and Brest (France). Eighth Army withstood six heavy assaults by Afrika Korps.

March 8. Rennes and Rouen bombed by day; at night hundreds of R.A.F. bombers (seven lost) bombed Nuremberg.

March 9. Red Army retreated under heavy pressure to north bank of Donetz, evacuating Lozovaya and other recently recaptured towns. Over 500 tons of bombs dropped on Munich by R.A.F. (11 aircraft lost).

March 10. Byely recaptured by Red Army. Establishment of U.S.A. 14th A.F. (in place of China Air Task Force) announced in Chungking.

March 11. R.A.F. bombed Stuttgart.

March 12. Soviet forces recaptured Vyazma; Soviet withdrawal from west of Kharkov. Rouen bombed by day; very heavy concentrated night attack on Essen. Daylight attack on greater London by 24 F.W.-190s.

March 13. Japanese convoy of eight ships in Huon Gulf attacked: two destroyed, three others hit.

March 14. Light forces of the Royal Norwegian Navy penetrated into Floroe harbour (90 miles north of Bergen) and sank two supply ships.

March 15. Kharkov evacuated by Russians. Heavy fighting in Rathedaung area (Burma). Japanese flung back in disorder in Hupeh Province (China). Darwin (Australia) bombed by 24 Zeros. U.S. aircraft made six heavy raids on Kiska (Aleutians).

March 16. Three heavy raids by U.S. aircraft on Kiska. British light coastal forces torpedoed two large supply ships off Terschelling (Holland).

March 18. American bombers attacked Vegesack U-boat yards (15 miles N.W. of Bremen). U.S. heavy bombers based on N. Africa attacked Naples by day and night.

March 20. Field-Marshal Wavell visited Arakan front (Burma).

March 20-21. Full scale assault launched on Mareth Line (Tunisia) by General Montgomery.

March 21. Red Army evacuated Byelgorod; recaptured Petrovskoye and 14 other localities in the Kuban. Sened and Bou Hamma captured by Americans (Tunisia).

March 22. Durovo recaptured by Red Army, which also repulsed German attempts to cross Upper Donetz. Eighth Army drove bridgehead into Mareth Line; British armoured column sweeping west of Matmata Hills (Tunisia).

March 23. Bitter and bloody fighting on Mareth Line. 250 Japanese aircraft in Rabaul area (New Britain) heavily bombed.

March 25. Heavy fighting continued in Mareth Line. U.S. Liberators dropped great weight of 2,000-lb. bombs on Rabaul; made four raids on Kiska.

March 26. R.A.F. attacked Duisburg (Ruhr).

March 27. Heaviest R.A.F. attack to date on Berlin: 900 tons of bombs dropped.

March 28. First train ran from Moscow to Veliki Luki since 1941. Eighth Army occupied Mareth Line and captured Mareth, Toujane and Matmata. Strong R.A.F. attack on St. Nazaire (France).

March 29. Berlin heavily bombed by strong British force (21 lost). Gabes and El Hamma occupied by Eighth Army (Tunisia).

March 30. Metoula and Oudref occupied by Eighth Army; Sedjenane by First (Tunisia).

March 31. U.S.A.A.F. bombed Rotterdam. R.A.F. attacked enemy oil installations at Bhamo (Burma).

April 2. U.S. planes bombed Kiska eight times and also raided Attu (Aleutians).

April 3. 900 tons of bombs dropped on Essen by Bomber Command. Allied planes sank two Japanese cruisers and left destroyer sinking off Kavieng (New Ireland).

April 4. Heavy concentrated day attack by U.S. Fortresses on Renault works near Paris; at night Kiel had heaviest raid to date. Heavy 15-minute daylight attack on Naples dockyards by U.S.A.A.F. based on N. Africa. Kavieng (New Ireland) and Lae (New Guinea) heavily bombed by Allied planes.

April 5. Eighteen Ju.-52 transport planes, six Stukas and seven fighters shot down off Tunisia coast; enemy destroyer blown up, three supply ships left ablaze off Cape Bon; over 200 Axis planes destroyed in 24 hours against Allied loss of 12.

April 6. Eighth Army took Wadi Akarit line.

April 7. Eighth Army linked up with Second American Corps (Tunisia). British withdrew 13 miles in Mayu Peninsula (Burma). U.S. fighters shot down 39 out of 98 Japanese aircraft (for the loss of seven) attacking Allied shipping at Guadalcanal; three Allied ships sunk.

April 10. Soviet planes bombed Koenigsberg. Eighth Army entered Sfax (Tunisia); 40 Ju.-52 transport planes and 13 others shot down over Sicilian Narrows.

April 11. First Army captured Kai-rouan (Tunisia); in Sicilian Narrows. 31 Ju.-52 transport planes shot down (making 92 in three days). Twenty-three out of 45 Japanese planes attacking Allied shipping in Oro Bay (New Guinea) shot down. U.S.A.A.F. made four raids on Kiska.

April 12. Thirty-seven out of 105 Japanese planes shot down in violent air battles over Port Moresby (New Guinea).

April 13. Home-based bombers made 1,500 miles round flight to bomb Spezia (Italy). Kiska bombed 10 times by U.S.A.A.F.

April 14. Heavy night attack by Russian bombers on Danzig and Koenigsberg. Heavy 45-minute attack by R.A.F. on Stuttgart. Thirty out of 75-100 Japanese aircraft attacking Milne Bay (New Guinea) shot down. Kiska raided eight times by U.S.A.A.F.

April 15. Creation of single Mediterranean Air Command under Air Chief Marshal Sir Arthur Tedder announced. Naples heavily bombed at night by R.A.F.

April 15-16. Four ships sunk out of nine in Japanese convoy heading for Wewak (New Guinea).

April 16. Over 600 heavy bombers of R.A.F. made night raid on Skoda works at Pilsen (1,800 miles round flight) and Mannheim-Ludwigshafen. U.S. aircraft made 10 attacks on Kiska.

April 17. Strong day attack by U.S. Fortresses on Focke-Wulf factory at Bremen. Palermo heavily bombed by U.S. aircraft based on N. Africa.

April 18. Strong force of home-based bombers attacked Spezia (Italy). At least 51 Ju.-52s (out of 100) and 23 fighters shot down off Cape Bon; Allies lost nine aircraft. Nine raids on Kiska by U.S.A.A.F.; Attu also attacked.

April 20. Tilsit bombed by Russians; Stettin, Rostock and Berlin by R.A.F. Enfidaville captured by Eighth Army (Tunisia).

April 21. Takrouma stormed by Eighth Army (Tunisia). Large force of U.S. bombers attacked Nauru, 780 miles N.E. of Guadalcanal.

April 22. Thirty-one Me.-323 glider transports and 11 Axis fighters shot down over Gulf of Tunis.

April 23. First Army engaged in bitter fighting between Bou Arada and Medjez-el-Bab.

April 26. R.A.F. dropped 1,300 tons of bombs on Duisburg (Ruhr). Enemy driven from last foothold on Longstop Hill (Tunisia). Soviet Government breaks with Polish Government in London. Kiska bombed 11 times by U.S.A.A.F., twice by R.C.A.F.

April 30. R.A.F. made heavy (55th) raid on Essen, bringing total weight of bombs dropped on city to 10,000 tons.

RED ARMY TRAINING BEGINS TO TELL

Continuing his account of the great Russian winter offensive of 1942-43 from Chapter 269, Major-General Sir Charles Gwynn here records its final phase. It ended with an enemy counter-offensive which succeeded in driving the Soviet forces from a number of towns in the Ukraine that they had just recaptured and pushing them back to the east bank of the Donetz. The lull that followed was used by both sides to prepare for the struggle in the coming summer

IT will be recalled that by the middle of February the Russians had recaptured Kursk, crossed the Upper, Middle and Lower Donetz and the Lower Don. They were threatening Kharkov and had recaptured Rostov and other important towns in the Donetz Basin.

During the winter offensive, Russian communiqués, for reasons of policy, barred personal publicity for commanders until they had proved themselves in battle. Stalin himself exercised supreme direction, and under him General (later Marshal) Gregory K. Zhukov, vice-commissar of national defence, co-ordinated operations on the various fronts which, with their commanders, were as follows: the North-west front under Timoshenko, with Govorov and Meretskov as his subordinate commanders inside and outside Leningrad respectively; the Central front under Sokolovsky; the Voronezh front under Golikov;

Russian and the South-west Commanders front under Vatutin, with Rokossovsky, at least up to Von Paulus's surrender, commanding on the Don and Malinovsky driving towards Rostov, with whose capture he is credited. In the Caucasus Maslennikov apparently led the offensive from the Mozdok valley, for he is credited with the capture of Mineralnye Vody. Communiqués in general spoke only of Soviet or Red Army troops achieving successes, and orders of the day (few in number at this period) are addressed to the troops and not to their commanders by name, except in the case of lower formations specially mentioned. It is interesting to note that among the latter, the troops which captured Kursk were commanded by Chernyakhovsky, later to become a familiar name. Boundaries between fronts were not clearly defined; thus we were only told that troops of the Voronezh front recaptured Kharkov and that Vatutin's troops were operating across the Middle and Lower Donetz.

It might well have seemed that the troops which had crossed the Upper and Middle Don would concentrate on the recapture of the great historic city of Kharkov. That was certainly one

of the objectives to be aimed at, but there was another and greater strategic prize to be won which claimed precedence. The German armies which had retreated from the Caucasus, and the troops from the Don which had attempted to hold the line of the Lower Donetz, were now cooped up in the salient formed by the Donetz Basin; and their communication with the west depended largely on the three main railways which run back to the bridges over the Dnieper at Kiev, Kremenchug, Dnepropetrovsk and Zaporozhe. If these lines could be cut, the Germans in the Donetz Basin would be threatened with disaster as great as that of Stalingrad if they did not retreat to the Dnieper before it was too late. Already as early as the first week of February the capture of Izyum and Lissichansk on the Middle Donetz was a threat to the railways to Poltava. But a deeper thrust from the base thus provided would be required to reach the more southerly and more vitally important railways. The thrust, moreover, would have to be rapid or the Germans would have time either to

strengthen their flank defences or to elude encirclement by retreat. The danger of such a manoeuvre becoming in its turn exposed to counter-attack in flank was also obvious, especially if the Germans had strong forces in the Kharkov area. For it would have a rapidly lengthening line of communications and might outrun supporting infantry forces. The Russians were, however, in no mood to lose an opportunity by refusing to take risks. While continuing their advance towards Kharkov, threatening to outflank it from the north, they rapidly exploited their Middle Don bridgeheads, driving south-westwards with strong armoured formations. In quick succession they captured a number of important towns on the Poltava railway, notably Lozovaya, Barvenko and Kramatorskaya which had figured largely in Timoshenko's forestalling counter-offensive of the previous spring. Between the two last-named places the German garrison of Slavyansk held out for some time, and the Russian drive, which on February 12 captured Krasnoarmeisk on the Dnepropetrovsk line, was on a

AFTER THE ANNIHILATION OF THE GERMAN SIXTH ARMY

Inhabitants of liberated Novo-Alexeyevskoe search for their belongings among the ruins of their snow-covered village, one of many liberated when German resistance in the Stalingrad area ceased on February 2, 1943. Throughout the Soviet territory they have seized, the Hitlerite occupationists have further tightened their sanguinary regime of massacres, punitive expeditions, burning of villages, deportation of hundreds of thousands of peaceful residents to slavery in Germany, said a Soviet statement issued in December 1942.

Photo, Planet News





ROSTOV-ON-DON RETAKEN

Lost and recaptured in November 1941, when Berlin stated that Germany would, by the use of dive-bombers and artillery, turn the city into a 'smoking pile of debris covering tens of thousands of Russian dead'; lost again in July 1942, Rostov was finally liberated on February 14, 1943, by the Cossack Guards Division. Here a captain of the Cossack Guards, S. Burmensky, formerly vice-chairman of the Rostov City Soviet, addresses his fellow citizens. Right, inhabitants return to the battered city.

narrow front and soon had to deal with strong German counter-attacks.

By that time, however, this attack from the north had made the position of the Germans in the Donetz Basin increasingly serious, and after the fall

Germans Fall of Rostov on February 14 they decided to
Back from withdraw to the line
Rostov they had held after the

Russians had recaptured Rostov the previous winter. This strongly fortified line ran from its southern bastion at Taganrog on the Sea of Azov, up the Mius River to the highly industrialized area around Stalino. The Russians from the east pressed hard on the retreating Germans; but with the close network of railways and numerous towns containing substantially built, easily defended industrial establishments to facilitate withdrawal, the enemy had no great difficulty in checking pursuit. Moreover, as they reached a shorter and highly defensible line they had opportunities for reorganization and were able to withdraw troops into reserve to meet the threat from the north.

Meantime the German situation on the Kharkov and Kursk fronts was no better, and it was evident that not only had their forward positions been shattered, but that they had few reserves with which to stabilize the situation.

Kharkov itself was evidently weakly held, as proved by the progress of the Russian encircling attack. The Germans appear to have made a belated attempt to rush in reserve divisions to hold the city; but when the Russians closed in on it these were used only as a rear-guard to cover its evacuation; and on February 16 the Red Army was in possession. That in itself was a signal triumph, but strategically the surge forward of the Russians between Kharkov and Kursk appeared likely to produce results of even greater importance, since it seemed possible that it would develop into a still wider turning movement than that which immediately threatened the Donetz



Basin, and might lead to a complete separation of the German armies of the centre from those of the south.

During the third week of February the Russian offensive continued to make progress. North-west of Kharkov the important railway junctions at Sumi and Sievsk, west of Kursk, had been captured, in spite of increasing German resistance, while to the north of Kursk progress had been made towards Orel which, though strongly held, was becoming a pronounced salient. In the Donetz Basin by the end of the week the Germans were back on their winter line between Taganrog and the Middle Donetz in the neighbourhood of Lissichansk; but though



KHARKOV CHANGES HANDS

Russian anti-aircraft battery set up in the capital of the Ukraine, after its recapture by Col.-Gen. Golikov's forces on February 16, 1943. Left, S.S. troops fighting in the streets of Kharkov on March 30. Third largest city of the U.S.S.R., Kharkov was captured by the Germans on October 29, 1941. After the Russians recaptured it they were forced by massed tank attacks to evacuate it again on March 15. It was finally liberated in August.



still heavily attacked from the east they showed no signs of retiring farther and were continuing to counter-attack in considerable strength between Lissichansk and Krasnoarmeisk, in the neighbourhood of which place fighting was especially fierce.

Farther to the west, however, the Russian drive towards the Dnieper had made rapid progress and on a broader front. Pivoting on its left at Krasnoarmeisk, it had cleared up the German pocket at Slavyansk on February 17 and, driving south-west from Lozovaya in the centre, its leading troops had reached Pavlograd, 30 miles short of Dnepropetrovsk, while on its right the capture of Krasnohrad, February 20, constituted a threat to Poltava. The situation of the Germans in the Donbas, with only one main line of railway left for supply or for retreat, had clearly become increasingly critical. Signs of retreat were therefore expected, for it seemed unbelievable that the Germans would court another Stalingrad.

But the line reached by the Russians on February 22 was to prove the high watermark of the southern offensive. As they approached the Dnieper fresh German forces were encountered and fierce fighting occurred which rapidly developed into powerful counter-attacks, bringing to a halt the Russian

**Limit of
Southern
Offensive**



SOVIET TROOPS IN DEMYANSK

On March 1, 1943, Marshal Timoshenko recaptured 900 square miles of territory south and south-east of Lake Ilmen, including the town of Demyansk, which had been held by the enemy since September 1941. The operation took eight days of heavy fighting, in which the Red Army killed 8,000 and captured 3,000 of the German 16th Army.

Photo, U.S.S.R. Official

mechanized columns now far ahead of their supporting main bodies.

At this stage the Russian climate turned traitor. The unusually mild winter, which had so far spared the Germans the sufferings of the year before and greatly facilitated their retreat, was suddenly succeeded by an abnormally early spring thaw, which rapidly turned the ground to mud. Without railway communications the Russians began at once to encounter desperate difficulties in maintaining supplies. This might not have been so serious if they had still had to meet only weak and disorganized troops, but it was soon apparent that they were now faced by a fresh and powerful German force which had, moreover, the advantages of intact railway communications.

Where had this new force come from? Clearly not from other sections of the front, which not only had their own serious preoccupations but had certainly already contributed all the reserves they could spare to buttress the southern front. To find the answer, it

is necessary to look back to the early months when the implications of the Stalingrad disaster were realized. Hitler's immediate reaction was to proclaim the instant mobilization of all Germany's man-power resources. This may at first have been with the intention of renewing the offensive in Russia in the summer, but it also enabled the General Staff, as the situation in Russia continued to deteriorate, to withdraw divisions from central reserves and occupied countries and dispatch them to the east, knowing that they could probably be replaced before any serious crisis developed in the west. About 12 divisions (including 4 Panzer divisions) were, it is believed, sent and they appear to have been concentrated on the Dnieper, possibly without Russian knowledge.

The Russians were now in a critical position on this front, for not only

had a powerful attack from the west to be met, but the counter-attacks on the Lissichansk-Krasnoarmeisk front grew stronger as the possibility of exploiting the opportunity became apparent. For some days the situation was obscure, but in the first week of March it became clear that the Russians were in retreat. German claims to have gained a great victory and to have made large captures gave the first indication that the Russians might have met with a disaster, but it was not till the end of the week that Russian admission of the loss of Lozovaya, and of a number of other towns recently captured, showed clearly that retreat on a strategic scale was in progress. It was realized, too, that retreat under the conditions of weather reported must be extremely difficult, especially as the German counter-offensive had been delivered by fresh troops with new equipment against an army to some extent exhausted, and with vehicles notably in need of extensive overhaul. Moreover, the possession of intact railways in their rear was likely to enable the Germans to maintain the impetus of pursuit.

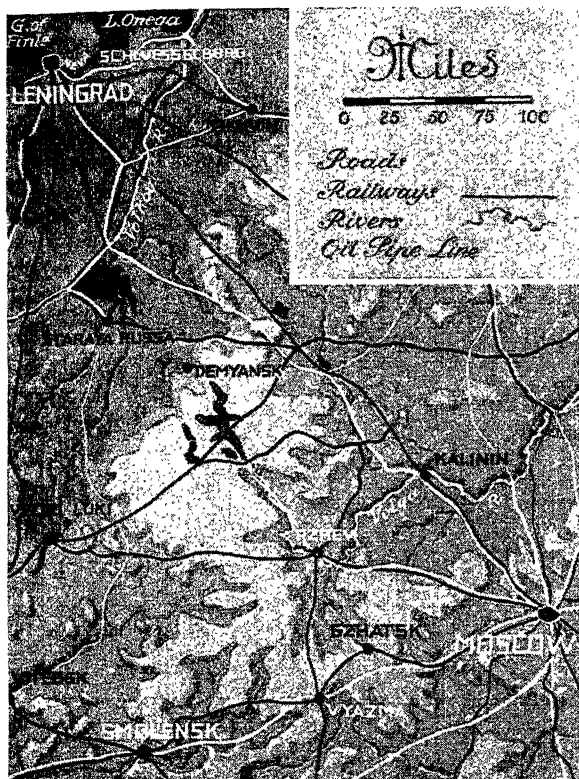
It was soon clear that the Russians would have little chance of rallying until the line of the Donetz was reached, and by March 12 fighting round Kharkov was reported, indicating the breadth of front affected. On March 15 Moscow admitted withdrawal from Kharkov, a desperate blow to Russian sentiment but a proof that the higher Command would not allow sentiment to overrule strategic necessity. Their intentions were indicated by the claim that the line of the Donetz was held firmly. From subsequent information it is clear that the Russian retreat, though it involved hard fighting and heavy losses,

RUSSIAN SKI-TROOPS ON A NIGHT MARCH

Troops of the Russian Army proved themselves in 1942-43 as much better adapted to winter fighting than the Germans as they had done in 1941-42. They wore uniforms heavily quilted with sheepskin, and were supplied with salves and grease specially prepared to relieve frostbite. They also had greater mobility because they could use any kind of sledge that might be available, and they were also, many of them, trained to run on skis.

Photo, Planet News





heads also resisted all attacks successfully except at Byelgorod, which the Germans captured on March 21. Farther north the Russian salient west of Kursk was maintained, except for a short withdrawal from Sumi at its apex.

The end of March may be taken to mark the end of the major Russian winter offensive and of the German counter-offensive. It proved to be the beginning of a long lull in Russia, which was to continue well on into the summer.

The Russian offensive had not, however, been confined exclusively to the southern front, and other important operations should also be recorded. In the north a corridor to Leningrad was opened by Govorov's and Meretskov's armies in the first

half of January 1943 (see page 2680, and illus., page 2679). Subsequent attempts to widen the corridor and to dislodge the Germans from their strong positions on the Volkov failed to accomplish much beyond preventing transfer of reserves to the southern front. On March 1, however, Demyansk, the hedgehog town to the south-east of Staraya Russa, was captured—an important success, since it placed the latter centre in a more exposed salient, thus further necessitating the retention of supporting reserves. In the centre about the same date, Russian attacks on Rzhev, and between Rzhev and Veliki Luki, where the situation had since the beginning of the year been obscure, were intensified; and on March 3 Rzhev, held by the enemy for 18 months, was at last recaptured, although part of the garrison appears to have escaped after heavy rearguard fighting.

The fall of Rzhev and the Russian offensive south of the Moscow-Veliki Luki railway, which was likely to

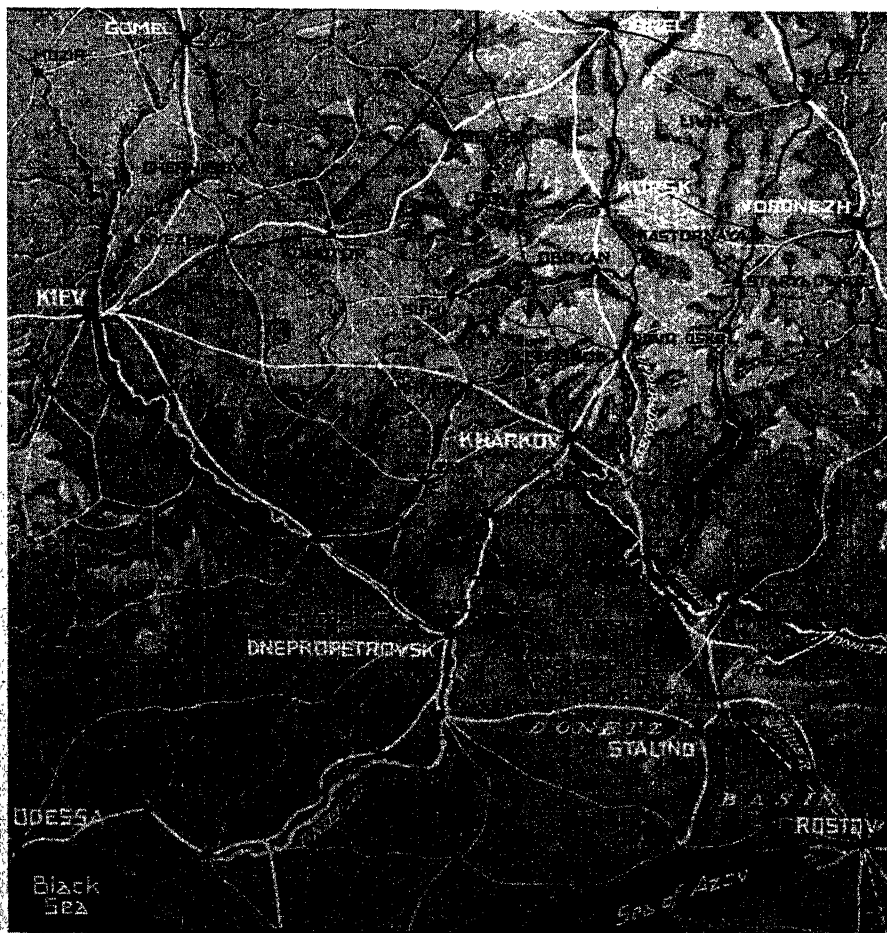
was in fact carried out with great skill; and that a strong rallying position had been established on the Donetz, including a number of bridgeheads on the right bank of the river. Disaster had therefore been escaped.

Two circumstances contributed to the escape. The drive towards the Dnieper had to a great extent been carried out as a blitzkrieg by mechanized troops

Red Army Rallies on the Donetz with which supporting forces had been unable to keep pace. The latter, therefore, had

shorter distances to cover in retreat and were able to establish a rallying line on the Donetz. Moreover, with the thaw, ice on the Donetz had begun to break up, making the river a much more defensible line. The retention by the Russians of bridgeheads across the river was a bold policy, since they would be exposed to concentrated attack, and retreat from them would obviously be difficult. So long as they could be held, however, with artillery support from the left bank reducing the danger of flank attacks, the bridgeheads limited the frontages on which the Germans might attempt to force a crossing. Ultimately, of course, the bridgeheads might also provide sally-ports for a renewal of the offensive.

With the Russians back on the Middle Donetz and on the upper reaches of the river as far north as Byelgorod, the German pursuit was brought to a standstill, and though up till the end of March and even later, many attempts were made to cross the river, they met with no success. The Russian bridge-



RUSSIAN WINTER OFFENSIVE, 1942-43: FINAL PHASE

The map above covers the battleground around Rostov and the Donetz Basin: here the fighting swept westwards and then back again, leaving the main Russian forces on the east bank of the river, but with firmly held bridgeheads across it; that at the top of the page is of the Leningrad and Moscow fronts, where the recapture of Gzhatsk, Vyaznia and Rzhev finally relieved the threat to Moscow, and the capture of Schlüsselburg gave Leningrad access by land to the interior once more.

Specially drawn for THE SECOND GREAT WAR by Felix Gordon



THE SHATTERED TOWN OF GZHATSK

Gzhatsk, a strong German 'hedgehog' on the Central Russian front 120 miles west of Moscow and 50 miles south-east of Rzhev, was recaptured on March 6, 1943, following heavy fighting, by a frontal assault after Soviet ski troops had cut the town off from the rear. Some 50 villages in the locality were recaptured at the same time, as well as Osuga railway station 55 miles north of Vyazma.

Photo, Pictorial Press

acquire greater strength by the opening of direct railway communication with Moscow, placed the whole Vyazma salient in a highly critical position. Whether the Germans had already decided to withdraw from the salient in order to shorten their front may be questionable, but now they were left with no option if they were to escape the risk of another first-class disaster. The Russian offensive began in consequence to make rapid progress. Gzhatsk, the south-eastern bastion of the salient, was captured on March 6, the garrison again escaping under cover of rear-guards. Vyazma itself was now threatened with encirclement from north, west, and south-west, and the Germans had to abandon it also in a similar manner on March 12. The Russians continued their pursuit until they reached the great fortified zone surrounding Smolensk; but after they had captured some of its outer defences fighting died down into minor local engagements. The main object of the offensive had, however, been achieved: the Vyazma salient, so long a menace to Moscow, had been eliminated.

The state of the ground forbad, for the time being, operations on a scale to break through the German central front in which Smolensk formed the principal stronghold. The elimination of the Vyazma salient nevertheless constituted a major Russian success, for it not only removed a threat to Moscow, but provided a starting line for a new offensive which could now be well served by railway communications. Moreover, it meant another blow to German prestige, and demonstrated to the world that in spite of the success of their counter-stroke in the Ukraine the Germans had not recovered from previous disasters and had developed a

Stalingrad complex. Their retreat had saved them from disaster, but it had involved the sacrifice of quantities of material and the waste of all the labour they had expended with the intention of making the salient an invulnerable springboard for attack on Moscow. By the end of March the great spring lull had extended to this front also, and only in the Kuban were operations continued on any extensive scale.

To close this Chapter it may be worth while to review the achievements of the winter offensive. The disastrous defeats inflicted on the Germans at Stalingrad and in the Don offensive, involving huge losses of men and material and the recapture of immense areas of valuable territory, speak for themselves. What was perhaps even more important, the winter offensive had secured the initiative for the Russians, and, despite their reverse on the Donetz, it was of a strength which seemed to guarantee that they would retain the initiative in the summer. The recovery of lateral communication between Moscow and the southern front immensely facilitated the development of further offensives; moreover, serious breaches had been made in the German defensive positions and in the lateral railways connecting them, notably in the Kursk area.

**Russians
Secure the
Initiative**

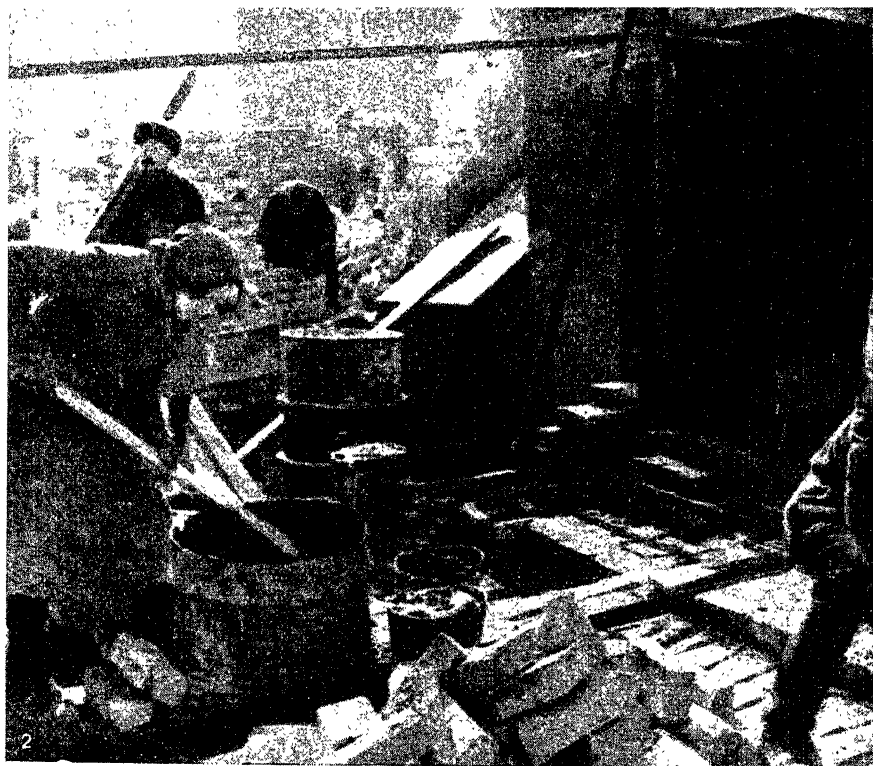
All views previously held about the quality and characteristics of the Red Army had to be recast. Stalingrad had proved that the Russian soldier was as stubborn as ever in defence and capable of taking terrible punishment. The counter-offensive of the previous



REFRESHMENTS FOR MEN OF THE RED ARMY

Women of the village of Zelenichino, one of the many 'inhabited places' in the neighbourhood of Rzhev taken by the Red Army during the early days of March 1943, came out to give refreshments to their liberators. This district had been in enemy hands for 18 months, and its recapture removed the last menace of the long drawn-out German threat to Moscow.

Photo, Pictorial Press



REBUILDING LIFE IN VYAZMA

Deliberate destruction of the work of years—first by the Russians in the execution of their 'scorched earth' policy, and then by the retreating Germans—coupled with shelling and bombing in the course of operations left many towns and cities in the battle zones of the U.S.S.R. mere heaps of rubble. These photographs of Vyazma, recaptured on March 12, 1943, give an idea of the desolation to which its citizens returned—and of the courage and resource with which they set about rebuilding life there. 1. Men of the Red Army take down the sign indicating the German Commandant's office. 2. Women and old men clear the debris from the ruined municipal baths. 3. At Vyazma station, unloading tractors sent by collective farmers of Novosibirsk in Siberia.

Photos, Pictorial Press



winter had also shown the limitations he was a formidable opponent under winter conditions to which he was accustomed. But the failure of the counter offensive to break through well organized German defences had encouraged the belief that even if the Red Army's offensive power was limited and unlikely to achieve the reaching success. Belief that the Russians in general lacked organizing and administrative capacity was also still widely held and in modern warfare such capacity was more than needed for. The success of the German summer offensive seemed to confirm these beliefs and to prove that in summer superior German training and organizing capacity would always assert itself.

The success of the initial counter offensive at Stalingrad, greatly as it astonished the world, was taken at first to prove the amazing power of recovery

Russian Skill Develops

conferred by Russia's manpower resources and the safe locations of her war industries. It was, however, a short range offensive and did not severely test Russian reputed weaknesses. As the offensive spread and retained its momentum under most unfavourable conditions, it became clear that administrative and organizing capacity of a high order was being displayed and that Russian troops were showing in offensive operations skill both in large scale and minor tactical manoeuvres which could result only from admirable training. Not only was the higher direction of the strategy of the offensive supremely



MEN WHO GUARDED RUSSIA'S NORTHERN COASTS

The northern coastal areas of Russia have no made roads and in winter the men who guarded those snowy wastes moved on skis like the naval unit here and obtained their supplies by dog or reindeer sledge. Sometimes horses were available in the summer, but more often supplies then had to be carried by the men themselves on their own backs.

Photo Pictorial Press

good—the timing of successive operations being especially remarkable—but the higher subordinate commanders conducting operations had shown drive and initiative of a standard far exceeding mere competence.

There was nothing to show that the success of the offensive had been due solely to superior ability to operate under winter conditions which had in fact, owing to the exceptional mildness of the winter given few advantages to

the Russians to compensate for those the Germans had in railway communications. There was no reason to assume, therefore, that in the summer the Germans would display again a superior offensive power.

How far the Germans realized the growing offensive power of the Russians or allowed themselves to admit that in the coming summer they would have to meet a Russian Army of a very different standard of efficiency from the one they had

Growing Power of Red Army

originally encountered, seems doubtful. The disasters of the winter had caused great alarm and had certainly shaken their belief in the invulnerability of their hedgehog centres and defensive organization. But the success of their March counter offensive may have restored faith in their offensive genius, and had led them to believe that all would be well in the summer when it could be fully exploited. When the crisis had passed they gave no sign that they intended to strengthen their defensive position by shortening their front. Rather, by clinging to the Kuban and the Donetz Basin, from which they could probably have withdrawn without much interference during the spring thaw, and by continuing their fruitless attacks to secure footholds across the Middle and Upper Donetz, they indicated an intention of taking the offensive again. The summer campaign promised, therefore, to open with a struggle between Titans for offensive mastery.



WEATHER HINDERS BOTH ARMIES IN THE CAUCASUS

The mud resulting from the rains of the prolonged spring thaw of 1943 held up Russian offensive operations—but it also played havoc with the transport of the retreating Germans. Thus German mobile gun and tracked lorry are hopelessly bogged in a Caucasus roadway. Floods later added to the difficulties of the campaign in the Kuban.

Photo, Keystone

DEFIANCE OF GERMAN RULE IN EUROPE

The history of Occupied Norway, Denmark, Holland, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Yugoslavia and Greece continued, during 1943, to be one of ruthless domination by the enemy of deportations and terrorization, of humiliation, degradation, and massacre on a scale Europe had never before experienced. Yet—it was also the immortal story of peoples fighting and dying for freedom, of peoples who did not give in to the oppressor. The history of these gallant countries during 1942 will be found in Chapters 218 and 259.

ALL the "New Order" instruments of policy in force in 1942—anti-Semitism, the principle of collective responsibility," the wholesale plundering of economic resources, the requisitioning and transportation of food supplies to Germany, the imposition of slave conditions on all labour, the exploitation of racial differences—were even more ruthlessly carried out in Occupied Europe during 1943 than before—and just as steadfastly resisted.

The German policy of anti-Semitism needs no explanation here, but it is worth noting that the number of Jews said to have perished in Axis controlled Europe already numbered 2,000,000 by December 1942, with a further 5,000,000 in danger of extermination, and there is little doubt that the massacre of Jews reached appalling new levels during 1943.

In food matters German policy never wavered. The Germans came first always. Consequently many peoples suffered from serious malnutrition, particularly the Norwegians, the Dutch, the Belgians and the Greeks.

The acute shortage of man-power in Germany brought in its train serious repercussions in the occupied countries, centring round the "total mobilization of man-power" order of February 1943, which, broadly speaking, affected all men aged 18-55 and women 21-40. This decree applied with ever-increasing stringency the principles of compulsion of the Sauckel decree of August 1942. It was resisted and evaded with a bitterness born of desperation, especially in Norway where it was announced—ironically?—as a measure "to save Norway from Bolshevism."

Labour so conscripted was used mainly on extensive military fortifications under the aegis of the Todt Organization. It was

NORWAY politically useful, too, being made an excuse to round up and send to labour camps all Norwegians—among them intellectuals, politicians and former economic leaders—considered potentially dangerous by Quisling and his followers.

The order also caused the closing of many industrial undertakings, business

life was sadly disrupted, and life made very insecure for the masses. Skilled workers and politically dangerous people alike were sent to Germany where, at the end of 1943, according to an estimate by the exiled Norwegian Government, 6,000 Norwegian political prisoners were in detention in addition to 2,500 at the notorious Grini camp. Yet how successfully the Norwegians evaded this order may be judged from the fact that only some 10,000 out of 300,000 affected by the decree had been mobilized by the end of the year.

One effect of these evasions was the passing in April of several new measures designed to tighten up the entire German and Quisling administrations. Under these measures all branches of the German civil and military administration were subject to the unrestricted authority of the Gestapo, conferences of the German authorities were forbidden unless attended by SS representatives, and the Gestapo instead of the Army was made responsible for dealing with

all acts committed against the Wehrmacht.

On March 10, 1943 Quisling appealed for volunteers for service on the Eastern front in the newly constituted 'SS Panzer Regiment Norwegen' which had replaced the old Norwegian Volunteer Legion. But the response was meagre, only 3,000 (60 per cent members of Quisling's Party, the Nasjonal Samling) having joined by May 27.

Fearful of the repercussions of the ever increasing tide of resistance, coupled with dissension within the ranks of his own party, Quisling on August 10, 1943, passed a decree creating special courts with power of summary jurisdiction, without appeal, to deal with espionage, sabotage and "co operation with Germany's enemies." This was followed two days later by a proclamation by which members of the Norwegian Police, the Germanic SS Norway, the Leader's bodyguard,



FUNERAL MARCH OF THE RADIO SETS

In August 1941 the Germans ordered the surrender of all radio sets in the coastal areas of Norway—an order extended in September to Oslo. These inhabitants of a small village in Hardanger decided to make a mock funeral of the occasion. The radio sets were placed in a horse-drawn cart, on which rode a violinist playing mourning music in traditional Norwegian style, behind followed the villagers in procession—hardly, however with funereal expressions.

Photo, Norwegian Official



MASS ARREST OF OSLO UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

A fire broke out in Oslo University on November 28, 1943, in circumstances which make it probable that it was caused by the Germans who, however, used it as a pretext for arresting students to the number of 1,200 as well as their professors. The photograph shows Gestapo cars outside Oslo University while members of the German police force are rounding up their victims inside. Some students managed to escape to Sweden.

Photo, Keystone

and the Hird were made part of the armed forces of the Reich.

Then, on September 4, according to the "Norsk Tidend," Quisling faced a crisis brought about by the demand of 110 rebels in his own party that he should accept their resignations and suppress the Nasjonal Samling. Though both demands were refused, the trouble remained.

Militarily the Germans were obsessed with the fear of an Allied invasion, a fear which became acute in August 1943 when the German C-in-C. in Norway, Gen. von Falkenhorst, issued a proclamation that Hitler had withdrawn his "Mag-nanimous Order" of May 1940, under which most Norwegian officers had been set free. By October 30 nearly 1,000 officers had been sent to detention in two camps in Wartheland.

Sabotage during the year was extensive, the most impressive being the destruction of the "heavy water" equipment at the Norsk Hydro Works at Ryukan (Norway's largest industrial plant) in February, and of the smelting works at Eydehavn on November 21.

Indicative of the extent to which resistance had permeated the everyday lives of the Norwegian people was Quisling's failure to enrol Norwegian children between 10-18 into the Nasjonal Samling's Youth Service. According to the Norwegian Government in London, only 1,000 out of 400,000 theoretically affected had joined by April 30, 1943.

This successful resistance was of course in large part due to the continued active antagonism of both teachers and parents, despite counter-measures, to all German attempts to Nazify the children.

One such counter-measure was the appointment in April 1943 of Prof. Adolf Hoel, a Norwegian Nazi, as Rector of Oslo University. This caused such grave dissatisfaction that over 1,600 students and 67 professors and teachers were arrested for "subversive activities" during November. While most of the students were imprisoned for a time, nearly 300 were deported to Germany. Of the teachers, 40 were subsequently released and 27 sent to the Stavern camp near Larvik.

The Church, too, played a noble part in 1943, its Provisional Church Council, *inter alia*, protesting vigorously against the mobilization decree of February 22 on the grounds that work on military fortifications constituted "German military service," and was therefore a violation of the Hague Convention.

Food conditions worsened considerably, especially during the winters of 1942-43 and 1943-44, owing to the large-scale requisitioning of foodstuffs. The black market flourished, fantastic prices being charged for everyday necessities. Malnutrition, resulting in a 70 per cent increase in sickness, especially diphtheria and tuberculosis, assumed incalculable dimensions, Norway's fate being like that of Greece.

Conditions of life were less difficult in Denmark—Germany's "model Nazi

state." Yet the evidence of the Germans' failure to convert the Danes, in spite of especial and gentle treatment, was easily perceptible in the number of sabotage operations carried out against the oppressors in 1943. Foundries, factories, power stations, workshops, military installations, railways—every type of industrial undertaking was represented in the list of those destroyed or damaged during the year; outstanding examples being the destruction of the main electric power station of the "Riffel Syndikatet" in Copenhagen (the largest small-arms factory in Scandinavia) and of the Ford repair works at Aarhus, one of the largest in North Europe, both in May.

The intensification of sabotage compelled the German C-in-C. of Denmark, Gen. von Hanneken, in April to threaten collective fines, taking of hostages and the death penalty.

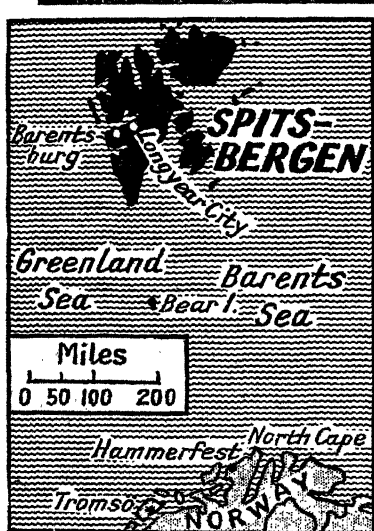
This policy, however, brought him into conflict with Dr. Werner Best, the German Minister in Copenhagen, who subsequently became in effect a Reich Commissioner. Dr. Best, who favoured the method of persuasion and appeal, was said to occupy a peculiar position in Denmark, being mainly responsible for the fall from German favour of the Danish Nazi Party under Fritz Clausen and the holding of the Danish general elections in March. These left the Germans in no doubt as to the wishes of the people, nearly 2,000,000 voting for democracy and a mere 68,000 for dictatorship. That the collaborationist Scavenius (the Danish Premier) retained office was merely an unavoidable detail.



APPEAL TO DESERTERS

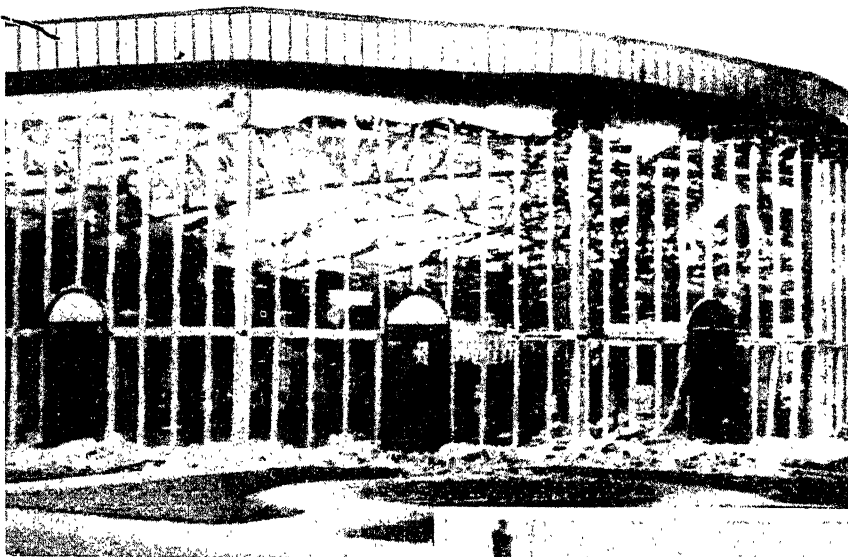
Part of a poster (said by the Germans to be a forgery) which appeared throughout Norway in June 1943. Signed by Von Falkenhorst, C-in-C. of the Nazi occupation forces, it began: "The shameful increase of cases in which men and even officers of the units and services under my command have violated their military duty by crossing the Swedish frontier"—which suggests not only that desertion was far from uncommon but that deserters could get away.

Photo, "News-Chronicle"



SPITSBERGEN FRONT

On September 7, 1941, it was announced that an unopposed Allied landing had recently been made on Spitsbergen, the coal mines there destroyed, and the miners and their families brought to Britain. (see illus., pages 1889 and 1905). A garrison of about 100, engaged mainly on meteorological duties, was left behind. Two years later, on September 1, 1943 (see Chapter 284), a large German force including the 'Tirpitz' and the 'Scharnhorst' arrived off Spitsbergen, shelled Barentsburg for 14 hours, and landed there and at Longyear. 1. Smoke rising from Barentsburg at 3 a.m. shortly after the German bombardments began. 2. One of the Norwegian defenders of Spitsbergen. 3. German grenadiers assembled ready to re-embark. The map shows the position of Spitsbergen relative to Norway.



DANISH SABOTAGE

This photograph, reproduced from the 'Sydvenske Dagbladet,' shows the Forum Hall, Copenhagen, after it had been damaged by an explosion on August 24, 1943. It had been requisitioned as quarters for the German troops brought in to put down sabotage and rioting.

Despite several appeals for order by prominent people, among them King Christian, by August tension had reached such a pitch that the German garrisons had to be reinforced, and strong demands were made by the German authorities for jurisdictional powers over saboteurs and the imposition of the death penalty. These demands were unanimously refused by the Danish Government on August 9.

With fresh outbreaks of sabotage, including the disruption of railways and public utilities, occurring almost daily in all the large cities, the strain increased



COPENHAGEN RIOTS

Policemen running down a street following a riot in which one policeman and two civilians were wounded. Left, two minesweepers resting on the bottom of Copenhagen naval base; they were scuttled by Danish sailors when the Germans attempted to seize them during the disturbances in August, 1943.

Danish officers were arrested and numerous prominent citizens, both Christian and Jewish, taken as hostages. King Christian and Queen Alexandrine were confined to the Sorgenfri (Carefree) Palace outside Copenhagen, under German guard.

This new German aggression was not accomplished without some bitter fighting in which ammunition dumps, naval and military installations were blown up. Eight Danish warships escaped to Sweden, and twenty others, unable to escape, were scuttled by their crews. Political repercussions took the form





H.M. KING HAAKON VII OF NORWAY

Invited to become King of Norway on the repeal of its union with Sweden in 1905, Prince Carl of Denmark ascended the throne as Haakon VII. His peace-loving country was ill-prepared to meet the German onslaught of 1940, and after being hunted from one refuge to another, King Haakon and his government came to Britain in June. Speaking in London in 1943, he said that while on the home front the entire Norwegian people were resisting the enemy, on the outer front Norway had on active service a small but efficient army, a navy of 60 units, 1,000 merchant ships, and an air force of several squadrons.

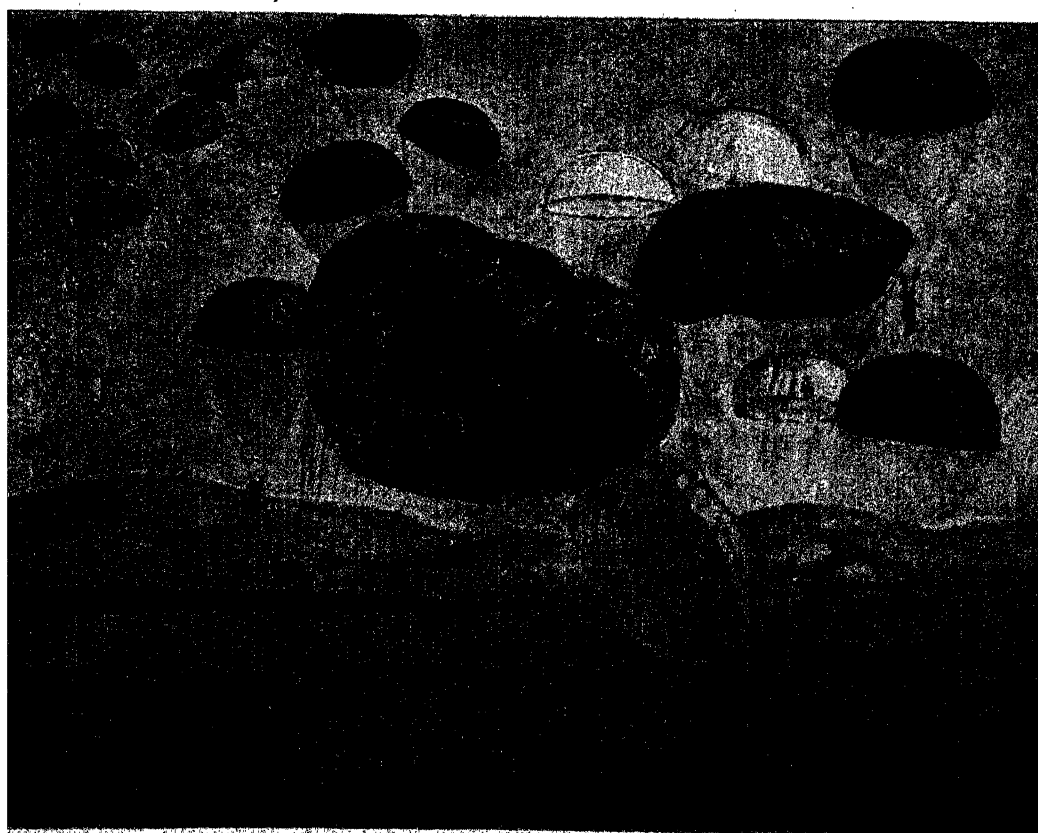
From the portrait by Cowan Dobson

COLOURFUL SIDELIGHTS ON WAR RECORDED IN PAINT



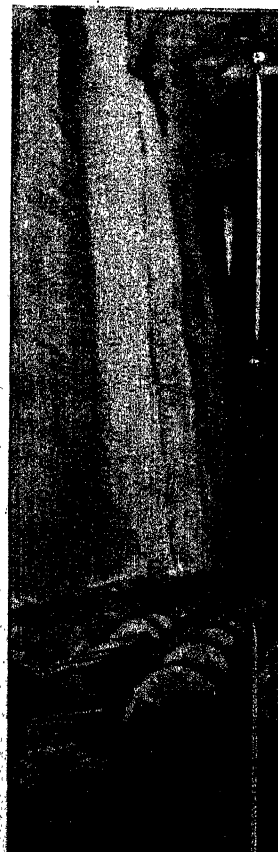
R.A.F. AIR-SEA RESCUE LAUNCHES; THE FISH QUAY BEYOND

Stephen Bone



PARACHUTE DROP

Henry Carr



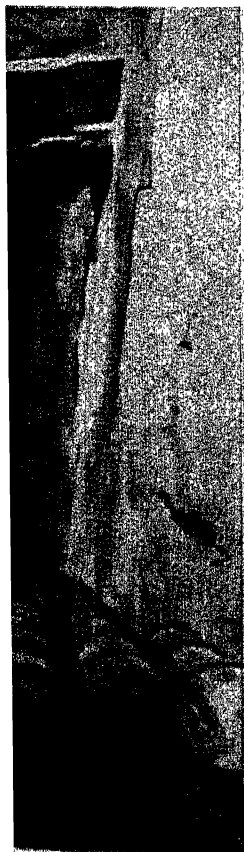
MINES IN MELILLI CAVE, SICILY
Exhibited at the National Gallery, London, 1965

ARTISTS' IMPRESSIONS IN BRITAIN, MALTA AND SICILY



BASUTOS DEAL WITH OVERFLOW MAIL ON THE CAUSEWAY, VALETTA

Leslie Cole

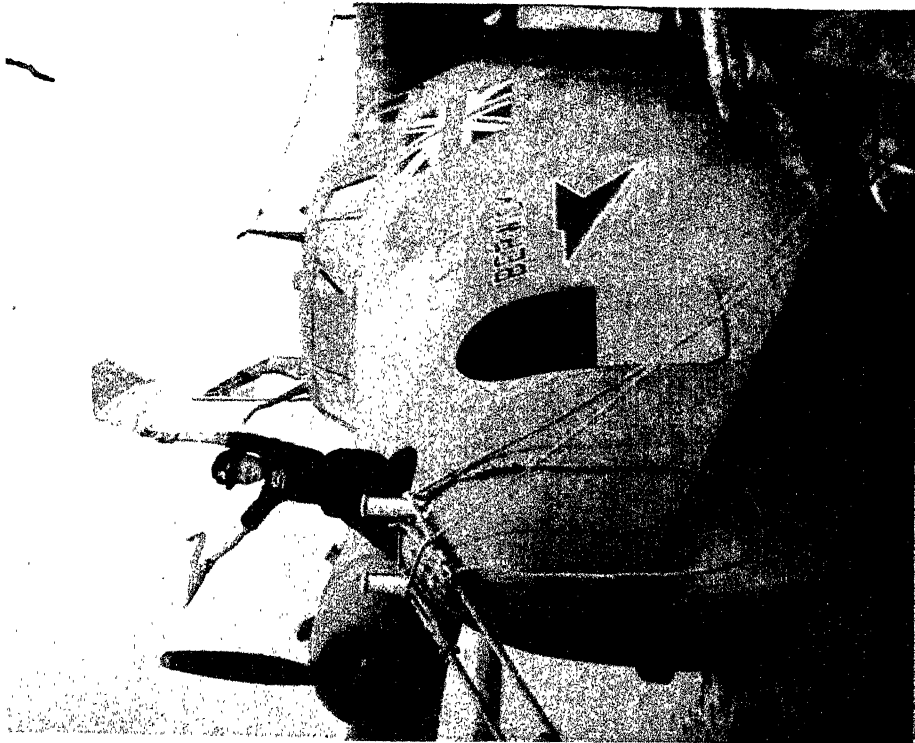


SICILY
John Worsley
Spring 1844. Crown Copyright Reserved



WOOLWICH ARSENAL, 1943

Robert Austin



SEAWOMEN OF B.O.A.C.

British Overseas Airways employed a number of 'women seamen' at the little fishing town which was the Corporation's wartime base. They worked on the launches used to service the four-engined flying-boats coming in from West Africa, Lisbon and America. These launches required skilful and delicate handling, especially in bad weather, to get them safely alongside the easily damaged aircraft. The women, whose ages ranged from twenty-three to thirty-eight, were promoted coxswain and placed in charge of a launch after they had successfully completed a three-months training in Morse, semaphore and lamp signalling, compass work, and general seamanship. Duties of women seamen included embarking and disembarking passengers, handling the launch while stevedores loaded and unloaded mail and freight, washing down and scrubbing decks, painting, and splicing ropes. Above, a B.O.A.C. coxswain signalling to the shore from the flying-boat 'Berwick'. Left, coxswains leaving the 'Berwick' after mooring her.

Direct colour photographs by "Illustrated"

of the resignation of the Scavenius government and the assumption by Gen. von Hanneken of full legislative, judicial and executive powers.

Although conditions in September were calmer, the end of the month saw a wholesale round-up of Jews; 3,000 escaped to Sweden, but 1,600 were seized and transported to Germany, notwithstanding Swedish and even Finnish protests.

With the dissolution of the Danish Police Force on October 5 and the arrival in Copenhagen of 1,500 more Gestapo agents, conditions deteriorated still further, a "state of emergency" was proclaimed in the city, and its citizens were fined 5,000,000 kroner for sabotage and the killing of three Germans.

November 22 was a significant day in Danish history, marking the carrying out of the first two executions of Danes for sabotage. Following a threat by the German Minister on December 4 that he would adopt a policy of "pitiless severity, including the death penalty" until order was restored, it was revealed by Danish sources in Sweden that some 300 acts of sabotage were committed in Denmark in November alone.

While the Danes had had special treatment because of Nazi ambitions to make their country a "showroom" of

THE NETHER- LANDS

Nazi life and culture, it was the Nazi belief that the Dutch, being a "Germanic" race, should not be treated as a conquered people but as one likely to be specially susceptible to National Socialism.

This policy, responsibility for carrying out which was vested in Anton Mussert, as leader of the N.S.B. (Nationaal-Socialistische Beweging—the Dutch Nazi party), was further implemented during 1943 by various decrees. The first, issued on January 30 by Seyss-Inquart, the Reich-Commissioner, declared that the N.S.B. "would be the carrier of the political will of the Dutch people," and required all German officials to consult with Mussert on important administrative measures. To himself he reserved the right to make final decisions. Simultaneously he announced the creation of a "Dutch Nazi State Political Secretariat," through which the N.S.B. could make proposals on government matters. This new body was set up by Mussert the following day with 18 delegates—three of whom had been assassinated by June 3. Prof. Gerbrandy, Premier of the Netherlands Government in London, broadcast an appeal on February 4 to his fellow countrymen to resist these decrees and Mussert's State Administration.

The resultant wave of resistance brought a decree by Hitler on February 22 investing Seyss-Inquart with all the power and authority necessary to effect the total mobilization of Dutch manpower and Dutch capital in Holland for the German war effort, including the use of the death sentence for sabotage. Another decree, issued on March 17, enacted the large-scale closing down of trade and industrial undertakings not essential to the war.

The vast effort to secure labour vital to Germany by deportation met with

was issued by Seyss-Inquart limiting the number of students by fixing a "numerus clausus," introducing obligatory labour service, and demanding that all students should sign a declaration of loyalty. Eighty-five per cent refused to sign; consequently thousands of students went into hiding and university life came to a standstill.

These troubles, combined with the German consciousness of growing Allied strength, led to a precautionary order by Gen. Christiansen, the German C-in-C. in Holland, on April 29, in which



NAZI DEFENCES IN THE HAGUE

A mile and a half inside the 'West Wall' along the coast of Holland, the Nazis constructed a second line of defences consisting of a 65-foot anti-tank ditch and a belt from which all buildings and trees had been removed to give the guns in emplacements built along it an unobstructed range to the coast. Here is a site in The Hague from which public buildings and flats had been cleared. In the foreground is part of the anti-tank ditch.

Photo, Associated Press

stiff resistance. By the end of May 70,000 people were in hiding (by the end of 1943, 300,000), but thousands, including students, were deported to Germany, protests by the ecclesiastical authorities in mid-February and again in May having no effect.

German fear of intellectual circles was manifested, as in Norway, by their treatment of university students—in a statement on February 15, referring to the mass arrests of students, Mussert said that a purge of all universities was necessary to prevent sabotage. In March many of the students were released, but at the same time a decree

all members of the former Dutch Army, about 400,000–500,000 men, were ordered to report for subsequent internment. Encouraged by a broadcast from the exiled Netherlands Government in London, the men concerned instantly stopped work and went underground. Factories and shops closed, transport stopped, and there was chaos. Martial law, already imposed in four provinces, was extended to the whole country. New, far-reaching measures were passed, including a ban on the employment of students, an extension of the age limit to men aged 18–35 for compulsory work in Germany, and the imposition of the

death sentence for taking part in strikes and demonstrations.

On May 4 work was resumed, but not before the Dutch patriots had seen that "the dress rehearsal for invasion had taken place and shown a remarkable solidarity." Conditions remaining unsettled, a state of emergency was proclaimed by Seyss-Inquart on May 9, but lifted six days later with the issuing of a decree confiscating wireless sets.

An appeal to the Dutch people by Prof. Gerbrandy on May 19 to stand fast was followed next day by a threatening broadcast by Seyss-Inquart in which he attempted to justify recent Nazi measures and the numerous executions. These, almost of daily occurrence, did not affect the killing of Germans and Dutch Nazis by patriots, which reached such a degree that Mussert was compelled on September 16 to appeal to the people to help him to fight "this ever-increasing lawlessness."

Anti-Semitic measures during the year included a German order in June to all Jewish husbands of Aryan Dutch women to choose between sterilization (strongly protested against by all nine Dutch churches) and deportation; and the expulsion of all the 150,000 Jews living in Holland, according to a statement by Mussert on December 4.

As in other occupied countries, the food shortage was acute; in June Dutch physicians stated in a letter to Seyss-Inquart that many people would die of starvation unless their food rations were supplemented. Germany's answer was



CHURCH BELLS REQUISITIONED

In Belgium the Germans requisitioned even the bells from the churches. These bells, cast in 1874 at the Manlius foundry in Dinant, are lying in the cemetery of the church in Liège from which they were removed: the management of the Cockerill Works at Hoboken having refused to melt them down.



UNDERGROUND EDITION OF 'LE SOIR'

On November 9, owing to an air raid on Brussels, the transport of German-controlled newspapers (including the Nazified 'Le Soir') was delayed. Belgian patriots took advantage of this to distribute to the kiosks copies of an underground edition (here is the front page), looking like the real thing, but containing clever parodies of German communiqués, witty attacks on collaborators, and straight articles.

the deportation of hundreds of Dutch doctors to concentration camps "for protesting about the treatment of civilians," and a threat by Seyss-Inquart in October to export all food supplies to Germany unless sabotage and terrorism ceased.

Across the frontier in Belgium the Germans hoped that, by exploiting the differences between French and **BELGIUM** Flemish speaking Belgians, and by encouraging Flemish nationalists, they might eventually Germanize the whole country. This expectation, owing to the fine work of the underground movement and to sabotage, did not materialize. Indeed, sabotage in Belgium reached such proportions in 1943 as to constitute Germany's biggest problem in that country, a problem met with the usual decrees and counter-measures. One such, issued on January 15, imposed the death penalty on all people possessing unlicensed weapons and all harbouring "terrorists." Four days later this measure was implemented in Brussels by the carrying out of mass executions as reprisals for a number of assassinations and "acts of terrorism and sabotage." By the end of May the Germans were arresting 4,000 Belgian patriots a month, and putting a number to death before the firing squad. Even the Germans admitted that in the first four months of the year 188 cases of violence against collaborators had been reported.

A feature of vital significance in Belgian life was the remarkably large number—about

200—of underground newspapers produced and distributed by patriots. On one occasion under cover of an air raid warning, an underground replica of "Le Soir" was successfully substituted for the Nazified official publication. The following condensed extracts from the underground press show the composition and activities of the underground movement:

"The Belgian Partisans are a self-contained organization, unconnected with any party or group, but uniting all Belgians of whatever politics or creed—Communists, Catholics, Socialists, Liberals, Independents—who have taken up arms against the occupying enemy. . . ."

"A summary of our activity is eloquent of the proportions it has already attained: during the past four months alone (January-April) in guerilla actions against Fascist formations, 34 Hitlerites have been killed; in isolated attacks, 79 traitors have been shot dead . . . 12 Gestapo men have been killed . . . more than 250 German soldiers killed in train derailments. Twenty-two goods trains have been derailed and 30 locomotives, 232 wagons, 33 lorries, and large quantities of supplies destroyed. . . . Eight canal locks and two bridges have been successfully dynamited . . . and 80 attacks carried out against factories and enemy supply depots. . . ."

The German labour shortage inevitably reacted unfavourably on the Belgian people. A decree of January 1 enforced military conscription in the Eupen-

Conscription of Belgian Man-power Malmédy - St. Vith district—ceded to Belgium by Germany under the Treaty of Versailles, and reincorporated in the Reich after the Nazi conquest of Belgium. A decree in March modified the "total conscription of man-power" order of February to conscription for forced labour of all men aged 18-50 and women 25-30, all under 22 being deported to Germany. Much of this labour was used on new fortifications along the river Meuse and in the Namur province, evidence of the German fear of invasion from the West, which became acute in October when all able-bodied men in coastal districts were arrested and deported.

By February 1943 about half a million Belgians had been deported to Germany alone. To "encourage" the people to obey their "mobilization of labour" orders, Hitler let it be known on June 5 that he was "contemplating the release of the first 20,000 Belgian prisoners-of-war, and raising their status to an equal level with free Belgian workers in Germany, if the population satisfied the German demands in regard to labour service."

Czech patriots continued their courageous resistance despite the execution of 132 of their number by the Germans in the first six weeks of 1943. In a



POLAND DEFIANT IN MISERY

Inside the Warsaw ghetto: for his leadership in the 'battle' there (see p. 2727), Michael Klepfisz, a Jew, was posthumously awarded the Silver Medal of the Order of Virtuti Militari (Polish equivalent of the V.C.)—the first such award for resistance inside Poland. Top, the words 'Poland will win' painted on a wall of the Vistula embankment in Warsaw. Below, Polish boys and girls building a road in Germany under the supervision of German soldiers.

Photo, Keystone; Associated Press; Planet News





NAZI MIGHT AGAINST YUGOSLAV GUERILLAS

Left, the Germans re-enter Split: General Tito's Partisans captured the town on September 14, 1943, and with Italian help held it against savage dive-bombing and fierce ground attacks by much superior German forces until September 29. Right, Germans belonging to a special corps of Partisan hunters about to break into a house in search of Montenegrin members of Tito's forces.

stimulating broadcast from London on February 13, Dr. Benes, President of Czechoslovakia, reviewed the war situation and, pointing to the steady exhaustion of the material, economic and moral forces of Germany and Italy, said "This is not the end, but it is already more than the beginning of the end. . . ."

Threatening that "if Benes continues to incite the Czech population from England a correspondingly large number of destructive Czech intellectuals will be sent to concentration camps," the German-controlled Prague radio announced that several Czech intellectuals

belonging to Benes's former circle had been sent to a concentration camp as a "reprisal" for the President's speech.

On February 26 it was announced in Prague that "total mobilization" was being extended to Bohemia-Moravia. In a proclamation referring to this, Hacha, the puppet President of the Protectorate, referred to Czechoslovakia's return—"after a short, mock independence"—to the protection of the Reich. "The destiny of the Reich," he said, "has

become our own destiny. Every ounce of energy here will be mobilized for total war."

German exploitation of Czech resources continued during 1943, notable examples being Hacha's order for the confiscation of all the property of the Christian Science Movement (reported on April 21) and the imposition of a new tax—"a special war contribution"—on all Czechs exempted from military service, made known on April 26.

On August 24 Baron von Neurath, the Reich Protector of Bohemia and Moravia, was replaced by Dr. Frick, formerly the Minister of the Interior in Germany. In the puppet State of Slovakia, Dr. Tiso, the President, was summoned to Hitler's G.H.Q. on April 23 for talks with the Fuehrer. At this meeting Tiso promised that Slovakia would, alongside the Tripartite Powers, "mobilize her entire strength for final victory."

Meanwhile, sabotage, riots, resistance in all forms, and pro-Allied activities continued to be a source of real embarrassment to the occupying forces. Reprisals continued, 57

**Reprisals
for Czech
Sabotage**

people being executed during April alone for "treasonable activities." Between May 1942 and May 1943, 1,935 Czechs, including 120 women, were executed, not counting the massacres at Lidice and Lezaky. Executions continued for the rest of the year, and on October 29, 519 Czechs were sentenced to death for "acts of terror and sabotage" at a court-martial at Olmuetz, N. Moravia.

According to an announcement on July 23 by Dr. Ripka, Minister of State in the exiled Czechoslovak Government,

WANTED, DEAD OR ALIVE

Advertisement published in the Belgrade Nazi-controlled paper "Novo Vreme" for July 21, 1943, offering rewards of 100,000 German reichsmarks (i.e. gold marks) for the capture, dead or alive, of (left) General Draža Mihailovitch, leader of the Chetniks and at the time Minister of War in the exiled Yugoslav Government, and (right) General Tito, leader of the Partisans (in November appointed commander of the Yugoslav People's Army of Liberation with the rank of Marshal).

between March 1939 and the middle of May 1943, 50,000 Czechs had been executed or tortured to death, many without trial, while 200,000 had been sent to German concentration camps, and 500,000 others to forced labour in Germany and elsewhere. These figures did not include the tens of thousands of Czechoslovak Jews who had been killed, imprisoned or deported.

Yet even the miseries of the Czechs pale before those suffered by the Poles.

Numbers of instances of German ruthlessness and terror in Poland were reported in the

POLAND press and by the Polish Government in London during 1943. Among them the following may be cited :

The villages of Kniacodowice and Szaulicze in the Bialystok district were razed to the ground and all the inhabitants shot for the killing of two German police and the wounding of several others.

To create a 70-mile German-inhabited defence belt in the Lublin province, the Germans carried out a wholesale massacre and deportations, affecting some 1,000,000 people. Men and women under fifty and children were deported to unspecified destinations; all over fifty died in gas chambers or by mass shootings, or were sent to a concentration camp.

On October 13-14, 1943, began a series of "man-hunts" all over Poland by the Gestapo, S.S. men and youths of the "Hitlerjugend." Thousands of people were seized, and by the end of October more than 200 hostages and 100 members of the intelligentsia had been executed. The Gestapo issued an order that all documentary evidence relating to persons who had died after torture should be burned. Similar man-hunts occurred in December, involving the deaths of more than 1,500 people.

Between April 19-28 the Warsaw Ghetto was "liquidated." Using tanks, bombers and artillery against men, women and children, whose only weapons were their fists and a few machine-guns and rifles, (smuggled in by the Polish underground movement),

the German army and S.S. troops massacred 26,000 people, the survivors, some 14,000, being deported. About 300 Germans were killed, and about 1,000 wounded. Other ghettos, including that of Cracow, suffered similarly.

Dr. Ignacy Schwarzbart, of the Polish National Council, stated in London on November 22, 1943: "To-day, after four years of planned extermination, about 2,500,000 to 3,000,000 Jews have

on April 21, 1943, Prof. Kot, Polish Minister of Information, said that during a single month it had destroyed or damaged 100 locomotives, derailed 17 trains, rendered seven oil wells useless, attacked 18 military vehicles and killed 300 Germans.

Its secret wireless station "Swit" transmitted news from Poland, announced the decisions of the Directorate and maintained touch with the exiled Government, in which work it was helped by the numerous clandestine papers.

Death sentences were passed and carried out by the Directorate on well over 100 notorious German and Gestapo officials during January-June. These included Gen. William Krüger, the "Secretary of State for Security" and Himmler's right-hand man in Poland, who was served with the notification of his death sentence; Col. Richard Gassler, S.S. Chief in Cracow; and Kurt Hoffman, the organizer of large-scale slave-labour man-hunts in Warsaw.

During July-December the Polish Underground Army, said to comprise 250,000 men in special detachments, apart from

reserve units of a greater numerical strength, had 81 clashes with the German occupation forces. Eighteen high German officials and 1,163 Gestapo agents were executed during the same period.

Dr. Frank, the German Governor-General of Poland, issued a proclamation to the Polish population on February 3, 1943, inviting them to inscribe their names on the so-called "Volkliste" by March 13, thereby "showing their German character." Reports from Poland declared this measure, designed to trap Poles into the

German Army, to have been a dismal failure.

An event of hopeful significance, announced by M. Jan Kwapinski, Polish Deputy-Premier, on September 6, was the setting up in Poland of a "shadow cabinet." Comprising representatives of the four main political parties (Socialists, Christian Democrats, Peasant and National parties)



MARSHAL TITO AT HIS HEADQUARTERS

Following a convention of the Anti-Fascist Council of Yugoslavia on November 30, 1943, General Tito was appointed C.-in-C. of the People's Army of Liberation with the rank of Marshal; a few weeks later he was accepted as a full Allied Commander. He is seen here addressing colleagues at his headquarters.

Photo, "New York Times" Photos

been killed by the Germans in Poland alone. Only a few hundred thousand Jews are believed to be still alive in Poland."

And yet sabotage and resistance continued successfully during the year, under the direction of an underground "Directorate of Civilian Resistance," which gave orders to the whole nation. Disclosing this in a statement in London

it was headed by a delegate of the Polish Government in London.

Political unity was unfortunately lacking in Yugoslavia, where the unhappy divergencies between

YUGOSLAVIA the Chetniks under Gen. Mihailovitch supported by the exiled Yugoslav Government, and the Partisans led by Gen. Tito continued during 1943, thereby adding to the complexities of the political and military position.

The fundamental differences between the two forces, the reasons for which lie rooted in the racial and national problems of the Yugoslav State, may be summarized under three headings:

1. In the field of military technique, the Chetniks were guided by British strategy and had as their main aim the preparation of the groundwork for a general mobilization to coincide with an Allied invasion of the Balkans. The Partisans, however, irrespective of external considerations, believed in a policy of ruthless guerilla sabotage.
2. Politically, the Partisans, because of their connexions with, and support from, Moscow, were considered more "left" than the Chetniks. Certainly they were

known to be opposed to the unitary monarchy of pre-war days and consequent Serb dominance. On the other hand, the Chetniks were in favour of the Karageorgevitch dynasty and the restoration of King Peter, and of the reconstitution of the pre-war Triune Monarchy.

3. Racially, the Chetniks, between 80,000-150,000 strong, were predominantly Serb, whereas the Partisans were representative of all Yugoslav racial groups—Croats, Serbs, Montenegrins, Slovenes and Bosnians. A Slovene and prominent Yugoslav Liberal, Dr. Ivan Ribar, was head of the Partisans' Political Committee.

During 1943 these internal differences resulted in the continuation of a state of "political warfare" between Soviet Russia and General Mihailovitch (leader of the Chetniks, and Minister of War in the exiled Yugoslav Government), and between the Partisans and the Chetniks.

In April 1943 the unification of the Yugoslav forces of resistance seemed probable with the declaration by Mihailovitch that "a national committee of some of the most prominent men in the country has been

engaged in clearing up all the faults of the old regime and preventing their recurrence": appealing for unity, he promised a democratic post-war Yugoslavia. Then, following negotiations between Tito and Mihailovitch in August, it was reported that an agreement had been reached on military aims. Subsequent events, however, dulled the hopes born of these negotiations. British representatives of Middle East Command were serving with the forces of both Tito and Mihailovitch.

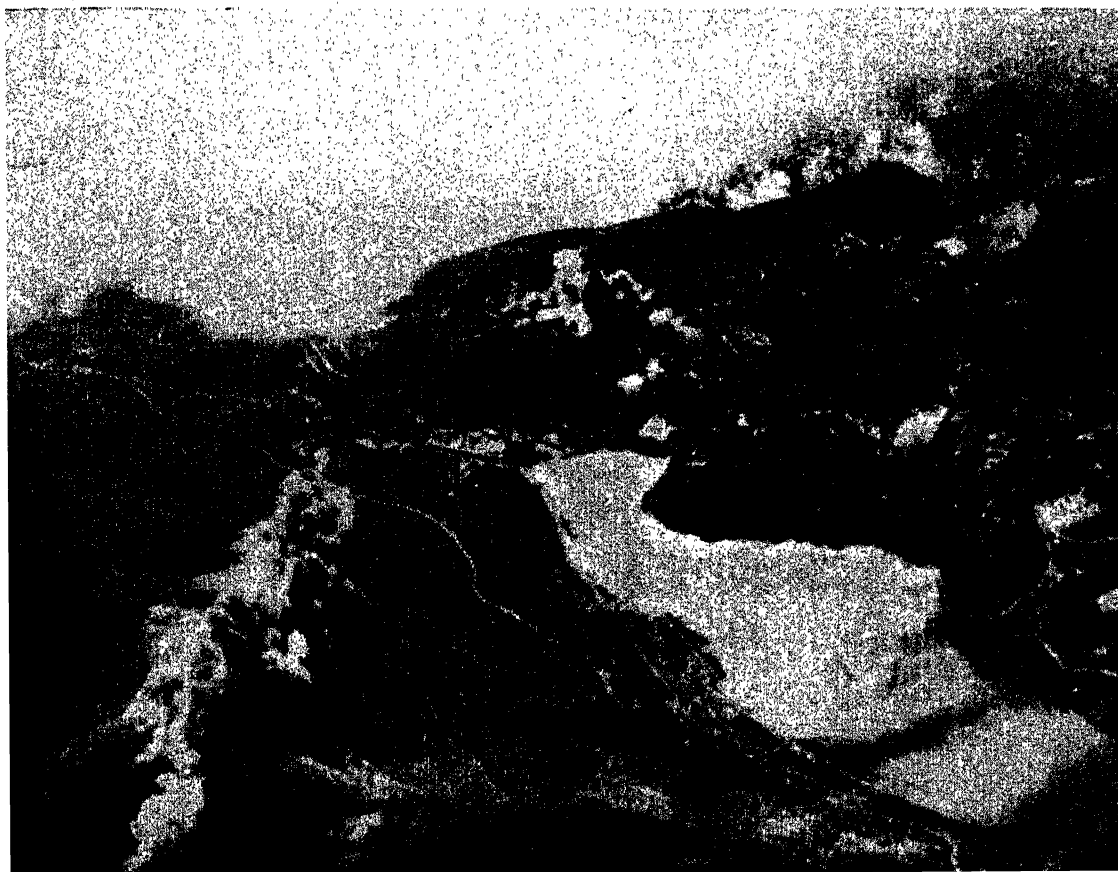
These inherent difficulties were naturally exploited to the full by the occupying forces, but especially by the separatist, enemy-sponsored regimes of Pavelitch in Zagreb and Neditch in Belgrade. The "Ustachi" Government in Zagreb pointed to the Tito-Mihailovitch crisis as a symbol of the futility of resistance, while Dr. Neditch, in a speech at Kragujevac on August 29, attempted to increase the traditional racial differences of the Croats and Serbs by saying that "we Serbs made every sacrifice, including our name and flag and 1,000,000 graves," and accusing the other races of Yugoslavia of treachery.

On November 8 Gen. Sir Henry Maitland Wilson, C.-in-C. Middle East, broadcast a warning that disloyal Chetniks who persisted in helping the Germans would be regarded as traitors to their own people, and enemies of the United Nations.

Yugoslav Quarrels Exploited

ALLIED HELP FOR THE PARTISANS

Allied aircraft made a number of raids on German-occupied ports and towns in Yugoslavia. Here, U.S. Mitchells are attacking Dubrovnik on November 28, 1943. Bombs straddled military storehouses and hit a merchant vessel in dock. On the same day shipping and harbour installations at Zara and Sibenik were also bombed by Allied planes. *Photo, U.S. Official*



Then, on December 4, the Free Yugoslav radio announced that at a convention held on November 30 at Jajce, Bosnia, by the Anti-Fascist Council (a body comprising representatives of all sections supporting Tito), the following decisions had been made:

1. To transform the Anti-Fascist Council into the supreme legislative and executive organ for Yugoslavia.
2. To create a National Liberation Committee to act as a Provisional Government of Yugoslavia.



GERMAN POLICE IN A GREEK MARKET

Living became more and more difficult in Greece during 1943. It was estimated that two million people were homeless, and prices of food, footwear and other necessities rose fantastically. Conditions were not helped by the ubiquitous presence of German field police—here seen exercising control over trade in the market of a Greek town.

Photo, Associated Press

To Gen. Tito fell the honour of becoming President of the National Liberation Committee and also C-in-C. of the People's Army of Liberation, with the rank of Marshal.

To this the Yugoslav Government replied, denouncing and repudiating in no uncertain terms Tito's formation of a provisional government. A week

later it was announced by the Free Yugoslav radio that a constitution of a federal character, based on democratic principles and containing the fullest guarantees of the right of national minorities, had been drafted for Yugoslavia.

The confused position in Yugoslavia led to a decision by Moscow, announced on December 15, to follow Britain's lead and dispatch a Soviet Military Mission to Yugoslavia to make its own investigations into conditions in that country.

The crisis reached its climax on December 22 when, simultaneously with an announcement from Cairo that recent talks between Partisan leaders and British fighting forces would bring about greater intensification of aid to the forces of Marshal Tito, who was at the same time raised to the status of a full Allied commander, the Free Yugoslav radio announced the repudiation of the Yugoslav Government as a result of a meeting of the Anti-Fascist Council. This repudiation was given in a proclamation of 12 points, the first seven of which summed up the charges

and accusations made to date against the Yugoslav Government. The remaining points clarified the new decisions, one being to forbid King Peter to return to his country until after its full liberation. The Yugoslav Government, replying the next day, said that notwithstanding this proclamation it would continue to fight with the Allies.

R.A.F. ATTACK AN OCCUPIED PORT

Beaufighters of the R.A.F. over Preveza, an Axis seaplane base in Epirus on the west coast of Greece. The flying-boat in the foreground is an Italian Z-501, a bombing and reconnaissance machine built for coastal work—particularly important to Italy with her exceptionally long coastline. Although this aircraft was becoming obsolete in 1943, it had achieved more than one world distance record before the war.

Photo, British Official



In the military sphere the fighting against the enemy, greatly assisted by the Italian collapse in September 1943, continued intermittently throughout the year, being governed mainly by three major German offensives.

The first, occurring in May 1943, was launched from Bihac and thrust simultaneously towards the Dalmatian coast and Banjaluka, one of Tito's strongholds. While Tito held the enemy securely at Banjaluka, his Dalmatian forces had to withdraw southwards.

The second enemy offensive, in June, made by seven German and four Italian divisions, assisted by Croat-Fascist and Bulgarian troops, was launched against the patriot fastnesses of Montenegro. Having almost encircled the Partisans, who were being helped by the Chetniks, the Italo-German army failed to gain a decisive victory when the combined Yugoslav forces successfully cut their way out, though with the loss of much vital equipment.

Then, on December 7, the third German offensive was launched, this time in the former Sanjakof, Novi Pazar, Bosnia and Croatia. Despite initial losses of territory and towns by the patriots, the latter counter-attacked with offensive actions in the Herzegovina and Montenegro provinces, and after much bitter fighting had regained the initiative in practically all sections at the close of the year.



ANTI-INVASION PREPARATIONS IN CRETE

The Germans, who occupied Crete in May 1941 (see page 1749), evidently regarded an Allied attempt at invasion there as likely, for they did a great deal to strengthen the island's fortifications, sowed the neighbouring waters with mines, and set up barbed wire defences round the coast. Here an iron framework is being laid down as core for the ferro-concrete platform of a new gun emplacement. In the background is an A.A. gun.

Photo, Associated Press

Unfortunately, as in Yugoslavia, the fine work of the Greek guerilla forces was undermined by differing conceptions of military, political and post-war structure which, aggravated by skilful enemy propaganda and the Allies' recognition of Italian co-belligerency, led to much internecine strife, particularly in October 1943.

On October 18, however, negotiations were reported to have taken place in Cairo between the Tsouderos (exiled) Government and six guerilla leaders from Greece. The leaders' demands for Cabinet representation could not be granted, a factor which contributed to the continuation of civil war between the E.D.E.S. (Democratic Liberation Army) and the E.L.A.S. (Popular Army of Liberation). Many appeals were broadcast for unity, principally by Gen. Sir Henry Maitland Wilson (October 22), King George of the Hellenes and M. Tsouderos, the Greek Premier (October 28, the third anniversary of the Italian attack on Greece, and again on December 21), and M. Sophocles Venizelos, Minister for Marine (December). In his appeal on October 28, M. Tsouderos included a 10-point definition of post-war Greece.

As elsewhere, the Greeks strenuously resisted Hitler's declaration on the "total mobilization of man-power," and despite German threats and promises, the enlistment of Greeks for the Reich met with relatively little success.

Hundreds of people were forced underground, many joining the Greek guerilla forces. These, temporarily reconciled in May into one body called the "Bands of Greece," intensified their attacks and sabotage in spite of vigorous German and Italian counter-measures, which included the inevitable reprisals, e.g. 100 Greeks being executed for every German killed, and 50 for every German wounded.

Early in May, following the killing of 60 Italians in an armed clash at Kalabaka on April 29, the German Command issued an ultimatum demanding the cessation of guerilla attacks by May 20. This was treated with contempt, and attacks were continued, the E.L.A.S. under Col. Sarafis being particularly active in Western Macedonia, Thessaly and Roumeli, while Col. Zervas commanding the E.D.E.S. operated in the mountainous area stretching from the Albanian frontier to the Gulf of Corinth.

German reprisals assumed the proportion of atrocities; it was reported on January 16, 1943, that at Kalavrika in the Northern Peloponnese all male inhabitants of the village had been assembled and machine-gunned, over 1,000 dying. Then an attempt was made, partly successful, to burn all the women and children to death in the school-house. The famous historic monasteries of Megaspilaion and Aghia Lavra were despoiled of their treasures and then utterly destroyed by fire.

Anti-Semitism, too, was rife: in May it was reported that of the 55,000 Jews in Salonika, 50,000 had been deported to Poland in conditions of the most inhuman cruelty and all trace lost of them.

An estimate of the distress prevailing in Greece during 1943 was given in a statement on February 8, 1944, by M. Sibarounes, the former Director-General of the Greek Ministry of Finance. He said:

"Although Allied help through the Red Cross has, during 1942-43, improved the appalling situation, inflation and the decrease in agricultural production has brought about a new deterioration, and Greece is suffering from famine. . . . Out of a total population of 8,000,000, over 1,000,000 are believed to be in a pre-tuberculous state, and 2,000,000 are suffering from chronic malaria. The excess of births over deaths in the Athens-Piraeus area in 1939 was 5,309—in 1942 deaths exceeded births by 30,351."

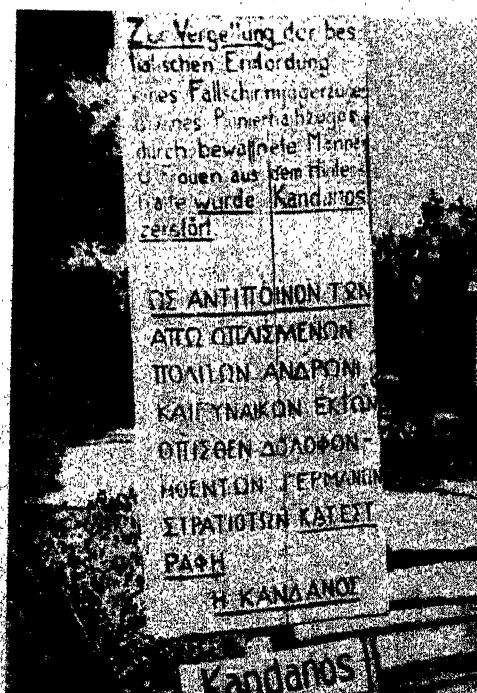
He went on to say that there was an acute housing crisis and that some 2,000,000 people were homeless.

An Ankara report gave 1,600 as the number of villages completely destroyed by the Germans and Italians. This destruction of productive centres was one of the main factors contributing to the phenomenal rise in the cost of living—an egg costing 10,000 drachmas and a pair of shoes 2,000,000 drachmas. The extent of inflation can be gauged when it is added that before the war 545 drachmas went to the pound sterling.

SITE OF KANDANOS

Many villages in Greece and Crete were wiped out in reprisal for the killing of German soldiers. Their sites were marked by signposts such as this which says, 'As a reprisal for the bestial murder of one platoon of parachutists and a half platoon of pioneers by armed men and women in ambush, Kandanos has been destroyed.'

Photo, Greek Official



THE EXILED GOVERNMENTS IN 1943

Norway, the Netherlands, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Yugoslavia and Greece continued in 1943 to be represented in the councils of the United Nations by their exiled Governments, though as hope of liberation mounted, events at home—particularly in Yugoslavia and Greece—increasingly influenced the actions of ministers abroad. Denmark, her Government helpless at home, still proclaimed her democratic spirit abroad through certain of her exiled citizens

THE extent of Britain's aid to her Continental Allies became known with the publication by H.M. Government on November 12, 1943, of a White Paper giving details of arrangements. These varied according to the



DESTROYER FOR NORWAY

Captain Storeheill points to the badge of 'Stord,' a British-built destroyer taken over by the Norwegian Navy to replace 'Eskdale,' sunk in 1943. 'Stord' helped sink the 'Scharnhorst' (see Chapter 284) and took part in the Allied invasion of Normandy.

Allies' needs and their resources: Norway, Holland, Belgium and Yugoslavia paying for all they received, while certain other Allies were supplied under credits. The bulk of military supplies, however, were made available free,

returnable after the war only if they still existed and were still needed by Britain. In accordance with this principle, the armed forces of Greece and Czechoslovakia were supplied free, and similar offers had been made to Poland and Yugoslavia.

Quisling's appeal on March 10, 1943, for volunteers for service on the Eastern front, in which he invoked the aid of the Norwegian Constitution, drew from the Norwegian Government strong protests against this threat to mobilize Norwegians for service with the German army, on the grounds that since Germany had long acknowledged a state of war between the two countries it constituted a serious breach of international law.

In her relations with Sweden, 1943 proved a particularly happy year for Norway. Although there was no doubt as to where Sweden's sympathy lay, the Norwegian Government in London remained unrecognized until early June, when Baron Beck-Früs, the Swedish Minister to Portugal, arrived in London to become the accredited Swedish Minister to the Norwegian Government. Then, on December 17, Mr. Jens Bull, Norwegian Chargé d'Affaires in Stockholm since October 1940, presented letters of credence to King Gustav,

the Swedish Monarch. This act, automatically constituting full recognition of the Norwegian Government, was the culmination of a year which had seen the friendship of the two countries, so vital for the difficult post-war period growing apace. Outspoken expressions of sympathy for the Norwegian people in the fight against oppression, coupled with strong condemnations of the Quisling regime and of the barbarity of the German rule in Norway, characterized the Swedish people's attitude towards Norway. This was doubly important in view of the fact that the Swedish Government was compelled by geographic, economic and political reasons to restrain the sympathetic impulses of its people. Secondly, the chief obstacle to sincere relations was cleared away by the Swedish cancellation in August of her agreement with Germany for the transit across Sweden of German troops going on leave from or returning to Norway. Mr. Trygve Lie, the Norwegian Foreign Minister, on August 5 expressed his Government's pleasure at this action.

On February 17 King Haakon, referring to his country's contribution to the war effort, said in a speech at the Mansion House, London, that the Royal Norwegian Navy comprised about 60 units on active service, that the

NORWEGIANS IN ICELAND

Norwegian airmen (transferred during 1943 to Britain) and Norwegian units (some members of which had landed when their small boats were driven by stormy seas beyond Scotland in their flight from occupied Norway in 1940) both served in Iceland, which was linked with Denmark until it declared its independence in 1941. Left, Norwegian troops in an Iceland village. Right, a Northrop seaplane coming in to its Icelandic station after a convoy patrol.





LEADER OF THE FREE DANES

Mr. John Christmas Moeller, former Conservative leader in Denmark, who escaped after the German occupation of his country and as chairman of the Danish Council in London became a leader of the Free Danish movement.

Photo, Keystone

Norwegian Air Force, built up at "Little Norway" in Canada, had several squadrons in action, and that a small but efficient Norwegian Army was stationed in Scotland. "It is the policy of my Government," he said, "that the ties between Britain and Norway, strengthened so much during these days of war, shall not be lessened when victory is won."

Some details of the achievements of the Royal Norwegian Air Force were given on April 9, 1944 (fourth anniversary of the invasion of Norway), when the Norwegian Government announced that from April 1940 to April 1944 the Norwegian Air Force had destroyed 162 enemy planes, probably destroyed 38, and damaged 117, while Norwegian air personnel had gained 219 Norwegian decorations and 70 others. A Norwegian fighter squadron was the top-scorer of all squadrons in Britain in 1943, destroying more enemy planes than any other and having the smallest losses.

Denmark was in the peculiar position of an "occupied" country having a democratic government and a monarchy whose word was still

DENMARK law; and though the crisis in Danish affairs in August 1943, when Gen. von Hannecken, the German C-in-C, seized power and King Christian and his queen were confined to their summer palace outside Copenhagen under German guard, changed the situation a good deal, to the end of 1943 enslaved Denmark was represented abroad chiefly by the Danish Council in London (see Chapter 220). Mr. Christmas Moeller, its president, had broadcast to his countrymen on March

21 calling on them to make the general elections (to be held in Denmark on March 23) a resounding defeat for Germany by voting either for the Government Coalition or only for the "Dansk Samling." The results—98 per cent voting for democracy—reflected the democratic spirit of the people, though this did not affect the composition or policy of the Scavenius Government. Following the August crisis in Copenhagen, Mr. Moeller made an important press statement in London on August 29: "Three years of injustice and brutality," he said, "have finally resulted in revolt against the German tyrants. . . ." Indicating that the Danish Council did not intend to set up a government outside Denmark, he added, "if the head of the State had been outside the frontiers the position would have been quite clear."

On September 2 the Danish Legation in Stockholm announced that, the Germans having deprived King Christian and his Government of any possibility of functioning, the Minister and his staff considered themselves free to represent Danish interests in Sweden independently of the Foreign Office in Copenhagen—a lead followed on September 7 by the Danish Legation in Dublin.

During 1943 a special Danish naval unit was formed within the Royal Navy; 5,000 Danish officers and men were serving on Danish ships for the United Nations, and about 1,000 more had volunteered for the armed forces.

An event of small importance internationally but one which drew the eager attention of Dutch peoples everywhere was the birth in Ottawa, Canada, of a third child to Princess Juliana and Prince Bernhard of the Netherlands, on January 19, 1943. A boy was hoped for—a girl arrived, to be christened Princess Margriet Francisca. In 400 years only

15 male children have been born to the Orange Stadtholders and Kings of Holland. Any child born on Canadian territory automatically becomes a Canadian citizen, but a Royal Canadian decree passed on December 26, 1942, had made the Princess's birthplace temporarily extraterritorial.

The problem of how to combat Hitler's compulsory labour decree and the implied threats of the newly constituted "State Political Secretariat" under Mussert, set up on February 1, 1943,

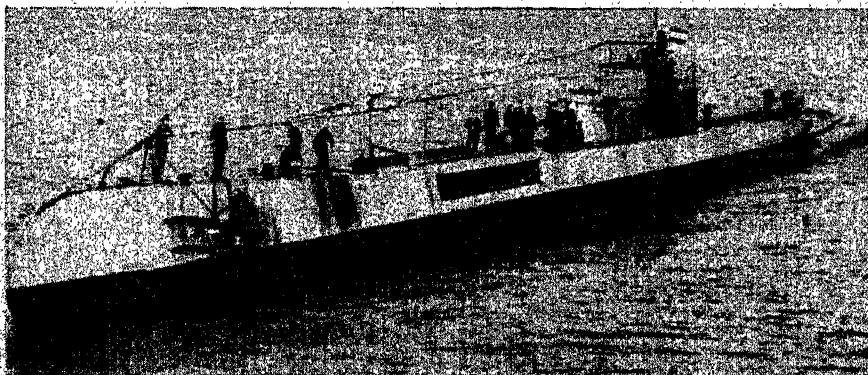
THE NETHERLANDS

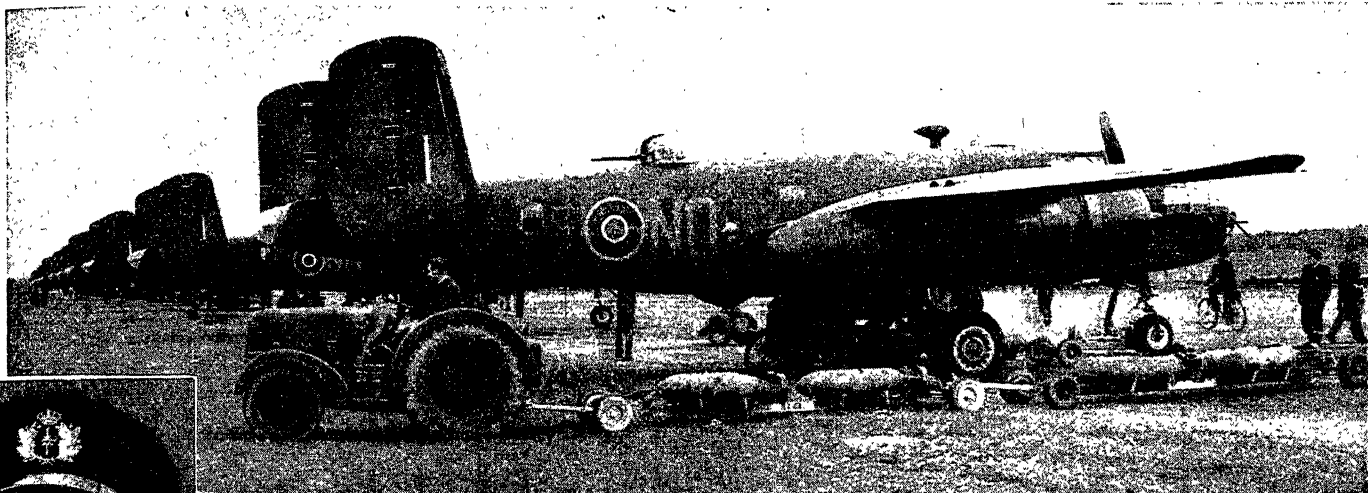
by Seyss-Inquart's orders, occupied a major place in the deliberations of the Dutch Government in London. Attacking Mussert's administration on the grounds that it lacked legal foundation, Prof. Gerbrandy, the Netherlands Premier, in a broadcast to the Dutch people on February 4 called on the whole population, especially civil servants, to resist. "Hitler," he said, "wants to use this organization of traitors, hoping it will enable him to postpone inevitable defeat. . . ." In a broadcast on April 24 Queen Wilhelmina voiced "a flaming protest against the slave drive now going on all over



WITH THE ROYAL NETHERLANDS NAVY

Prof. Gerbrandy, Premier of the exiled Netherlands Government, after handing over the frigate 'Johan Maurits' to its commander, talks to Leading Seaman Jan Booy, a survivor of the Dutch destroyer 'Isaac Sweerts' (see pp. 1896, 2190, 2393, and illus., p. 2188), serving in 'Johan Maurits.' Below, the Dutch submarine O-19 as she reached Britain after three years of service in the Far East. A big minelaying submarine built for use in the East Indies, she reached Colombo after escaping from Singapore and Surabaya.





DUTCHMEN FLY WITH THE R.A.F.

Bombing up American-built Mitchell bombers flown by a squadron of the Royal Dutch Naval Air Service during 1943, their fourth year on operational duties with the R.A.F. They made many successful attacks on enemy targets in occupied Europe, including their homeland. Left, Commander E. Bakker, commanding officer of the squadron, wearing the ribbon of the Dutch Flying Cross.

Photos, Planet News

our country." Referring to post-war structure, she said that at first a government would be needed to rule with a firm hand—

careful, however, to avoid anything even distantly resembling dictatorship. On May 19 Dr. Gerbrandy made yet another appeal to the people of Holland to stand fast and to retain their strength for the day of liberation.

In a further broadcast on September 2 Queen Wilhelmina told the Dutch people that a state of siege—"to provide for the cleansing and revival of civil authority," and for "the removal of all undesirable elements . . ."—would be imposed in Holland as soon as it was liberated, a decree to this effect being duly signed. A Government Commissioner for the repatriation of Dutch nationals abroad, and a Netherlands representative on the United Nations War Crimes Commission were appointed during October.

The war contribution of the Netherlands Government in 1943 was made principally through her navy and air force. The fine achievements of the Royal Netherlands Navy, comprising in 1943 some 63 warships with 6,580 personnel, included active engagements in the Mediterranean (Sicily and Salerno landings included), the English Channel, the Caribbean and the S.W. Pacific, and on convoy duties; 35,000 tons of enemy shipping were sunk by Dutch submarines. The Dutch naval and army air arms between them operated from

Britain, Ceylon, Australia and South Africa.

The agreement announced by Britain, the United States and China on December 1 at Cairo (*see Historic Document CCLXVII, page 2636*), to the effect that Japan would be expelled from all the territory she had taken by force, was warmly approved by the Netherlands Government, with its huge interests in Japanese-occupied territory.

A monetary agreement—important not only in itself, but even more as evidence of the intention of the signatories to collaborate economically after the war—was signed on October 21 by the Netherlands, Belgian and Luxemburg Governments. The agreement had the warm approval of the United States and Great Britain. In a preamble, it defined its purpose as the desire of the three Governments "to stabilize the monetary relations and facilitate the mechanism of payments between the Belgo-Luxemburg Economic Union and the Netherlands, including their overseas territories or mandates."

Other gestures of international friendship made by the exiled Belgian Government included recognition of the French Committee for National Liberation on August 25, and the signing on October 20 of a treaty in Chungking whereby Belgium relinquished not only territorial jurisdiction in China and all special rights in the international settlements at Shanghai and Amoy, but also rights under the final protocol of Peking and all rights relating to coastal trade and inland navigation.

The Belgian Government was particularly fortunate in being able to

augment its help to the Allied war effort in the military sphere by supplying raw materials from the Belgian Congo. This vast territory, said by the Belgian **BELGIUM** Minister of Colonies on

January 5, 1943, to be working at maximum capacity, contributed some 160,000 tons of copper, 21,000 tons of tin, and 6,000-7,000 tons of rubber per year to the Allied pool of war materials. The United States made an agreement with the Belgian Government on February 18 whereby, in exchange for supplies received under Lease-Lend,

BELGIAN COMMANDOS

Two members of a Belgian Commando unit undergoing training in North Africa. They wore British battle-dress, and the equipment they are demonstrating—a six-foot rope—was used to assist them in climbing trees and walls or crossing rivers.

Photo, U.S. Official



Belgium undertook to furnish the U.S. with essential raw materials.

Belgian shipping, totalling 400,000 tons at the time of the German invasion, had been much depleted, and on June 16 the Belgian Government announced its decision to buy four new ships (three from Britain, one from the U.S.) to replace some of these losses. Twenty-five per cent of Belgian sailors, it may be added, had been lost since May 1940.

Belgian airmen, whose number in 1943 was much in excess of those in service at the time of the German invasion of 1940, were to be found in almost every Command of the Royal Air Force, and had acquitted themselves with distinction. The Belgian Navy, with some seven ships and 350 personnel in mid-May 1943, rendered invaluable assistance to the Royal Navy, by which it was administered.

The Belgian Government protested on January 27 and September 22 against the brutal mass deportations of Belgians to Germany, which, according to the report of the Belgian Committee on Repatriation, published on December 29, 1943, had by that date reached the 600,000 figure—500,000 workers, 70,000 prisoners-of-war, 10,000–15,000 children, and some 6,000 civil prisoners. On July 26 it denounced strongly the tortures inflicted on Belgians in the prisons, and at the same time appeals were made to Belgian patriots, “from the highest official to the humblest navvy,” to sabotage the Nazi war effort, especially by attacks

on railways and canals. Equally strong was the Belgian Government's protest of September 20 against the German treatment of Jews and recent mass arrests of Jews in Belgium. Saying that the racial ordinances promulgated and applied by the occupation authorities were unconstitutional and contrary to Belgian law, it reaffirmed that all anti-Jewish measures imposed by Germany would be held null and void when Belgium was free.

An indication of the Belgian Government's future policy was given by the Belgian Premier, M. Pierlot, in a broadcast on Belgian Independence Day, July 21. Describing in some detail the counterfeit legislation which had been responsible for the mutilation of his country's administration, M. Pierlot forecast the transference of his Government to liberated Belgium. This Government's duties, he said, would comprise the co-ordination of food supply services with the assistance of existing agencies; the immediate enforcement of decrees aimed at the cleansing of the public administration, the expulsion of traitors and the reinstatement of lawful officials; and the formation of a new Government with extended powers, incorporating in its administration men who had stayed in Belgium during the enemy's occupation.

A declaration issued by the Czechoslovak Government at a meeting held on February 19, 1943, defined as persons to be included among war criminals and traitors not only the Nazi Government in Germany, but also German officials of all kinds in Czechoslovakia — administrative, judi-



CZECHOSLOVAK AIR ACE

Ft.-Lt. K. Kuttelwascher, D.F.C. and bar, famous as a ‘night intruder’ pilot with the R.A.F., received the Czechoslovak War Cross for the fifth time on July 30, 1943.

From the drawing by Eric Kennington; Crown Copyright

cial, police and military, the Gestapo, the S.S. and S.A.—as well as local traitors. In a broadcast to the Czech people on April 25, Dr. Benes, President of Czechoslovakia, disclosed that Dr. Tiso and his Premier **CZECHOSLOVAKIA** Tuka (of the puppet Slovak State) had on several occasions attempted to establish contact with official Czechoslovak representatives in various countries in order to make excuses for their treachery in 1938. Declaring that Czechoslovakia was once again united, he concluded: “We are preparing a new democratic Republic which will again be the best and most progressive Central European State after the war.”

Militarily, Czechoslovakia's war contribution came chiefly from her small but finely trained Air Force which, from the Battle of Britain to October 1943, destroyed 173 enemy planes with 181 probables, and took part in over 1,000 operational bombing flights over Germany, Italy and occupied countries. A Czechoslovak airman, Ft.-Lt. Karel Kuttelwascher, D.F.C. and bar, won the distinction of being one of the foremost “night intruder” pilots.

Czech units were in training in the Middle East and a Czech brigade saw service on the Russian front.

Dr. Benes visited Washington on May 12 for conversations with President Roosevelt. On May 13 he addressed separately the U.S. Senate and the House of Representatives, pledging the reconstitution of Czechoslovakia after



SOVIET-CZECHOSLOVAK FRIENDSHIP

Mikhail Kalinin, President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., shaking hands with Edvard Benes, President of the Czechoslovak Republic, after signing the Soviet-Czechoslovak treaty of friendship, mutual assistance, and post-war co-operation in Moscow on December 12, 1943. Standing are Marshals Klement Voroshilov and Joseph Stalin.

Photo: Pictorial Press



POLAND'S PREMIER

M. Stanislaw Mikolajczyk, who formed a new Polish Government on July 14, 1943, following the death of General Sikorski, stated that his Government would base its policy on the principles laid down by the General.

Photo, Y. Karsh

victory as an enlightened Central European democracy. Later Dr. Benes visited Ottawa, where he addressed the Canadian Parliament, returning to Washington on June 7 for talks with Roosevelt and Churchill. On June 11 he arrived back in Britain, having reached complete accord with the two great leaders on matters concerning his country and her interests, as well as on questions of European policy and the international organization of security.

Then, on December 12, Dr. Benes (who had arrived in Moscow on December 10), on behalf of Czechoslovakia, Marshal Stalin and President Kalinin, on behalf of the U.S.S.R., signed a 20-year treaty of friendship, mutual assistance and post-war collaboration, which, in Dr. Benes's words, was "the consummation of Czechoslovakia's striving for more than 20 years, pursuing the aim of protecting our people and State from German Imperialism. . . ."

A protocol to the treaty left the way open for Poland's adherence at some future date if she so desired. This agreement was warmly welcomed in London and Washington.

Although no official statement was made by the Polish Government regarding the invitation of Czechoslovakia and

Russia to Poland to join their mutual aid pact, the semi-official "Dziennik Polski" stated in an article on December 17 that, while Poland regarded the development of friendly relations with the U.S.S.R. as of fundamental importance, the principles re-

ferred to in the agreement defined the relations between two States only, and suggested the addition of five other points important to Poland. The Polish Government's desire to reach a settlement with her neighbours was indicated by Count Raczynski, the Foreign Minister, in a statement to the Polish National Council on May 25, 1943, while on June 8 the Council adopted a resolution declaring that it was in the interests of both Poland and Czechoslovakia to reach an agreement on a basis of the closest co-operation, which would repair mistakes committed by both countries.

Up to April 12, 1943, the difficulties causing tension between Poland and the Soviet Union can be summed up thus:—

1. The question of Poland's post-war frontiers, and Soviet complaints regarding the attitude of the Polish press in Britain and America to this question.
2. The forcible conferment of Soviet citizenship on Poles in the U.S.S.R.
3. The question of the relief and removal from Russia of Poles still in that country, especially those destitute.
4. Polish resentment at the recent execution of two Polish Socialists in Russia for alleged espionage.

Then came the allegations of April 12 by the Germans that in the Katyn region near Smolensk they had found the mass graves of 10,000 Polish officers murdered by the Soviet political police in late 1939—the nature of the soil being such that the bodies, said the Germans, had mummified and were identifiable from

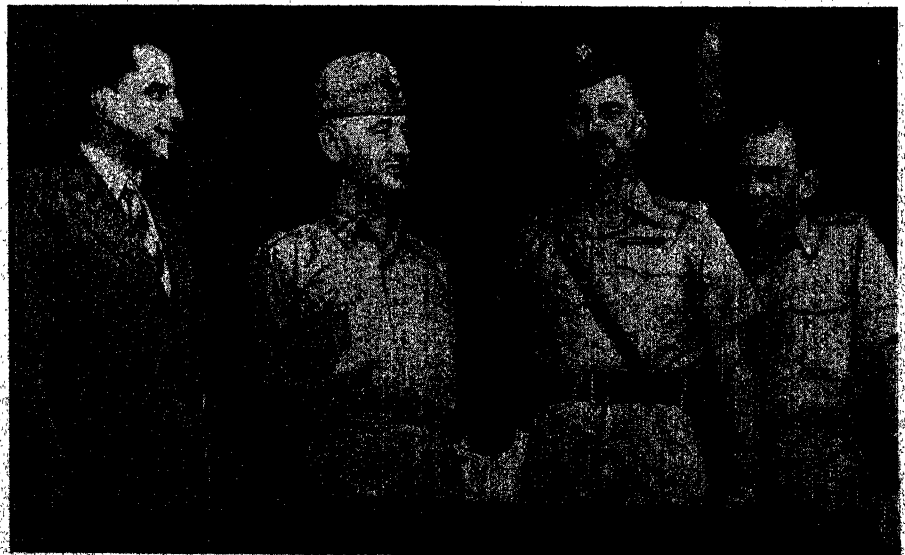
documents found in their pockets. These allegations were instantly described by the Soviet Union as "vile fabrications." Nevertheless, on April 16 the Polish Cabinet announced that it had asked the International Red Cross to investigate the matter—a request also made by the German Red Cross. Failing a similar request from Moscow the I.R.C. refused to undertake the inquiry. A number of statements were issued by both sides, and tension increased until on April 25 the Soviet Government severed relations with the Polish Government.

On May 3, Polish National Day, M. Raczewicz, the Polish President, broadcast to Poland, defending the Polish Government as "a Government formed according to our constitution, a Government whose legality never has been, and cannot be, questioned by any of the United or neutral nations. . . ."

No statement, however, could change the fundamental weaknesses of the Polish Government, whose legal status was based on the re-
New Coalition Government Formed

actionary Constitution of 1935, which had abolished all the democratic provisions of the 1921 Constitution. When a new Coalition Government was later formed under M. Mikolajczyk, composed almost entirely of members of the Opposition who had strenuously fought against the adoption of the 1935 Constitution, and who now lacked the courage to renounce this Constitution, these weaknesses were increased.

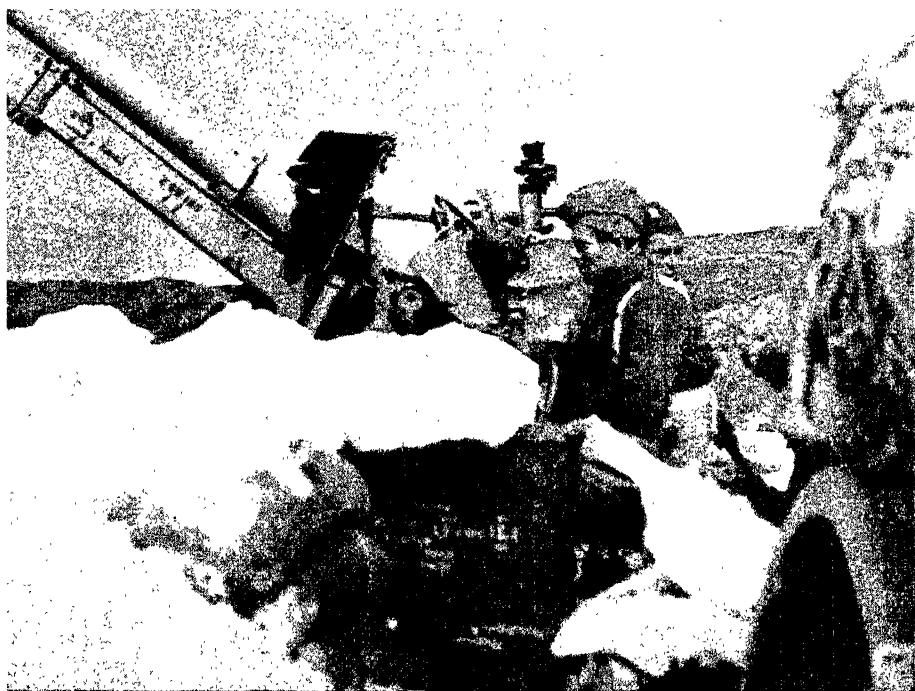
On May 4 Gen. Sikorski, the Polish Premier and C-in-C., broadcast a mes-



GENERAL SIKORSKI IN THE MIDDLE EAST

This photo of (left to right) M. Tadeusz Romer, former Polish Ambassador to Moscow, General Sikorski, Polish Premier and C-in-C., Lieut.-General Anders, C-in-C. Polish Army, Middle East, and Maj.-Gen. Klimecki, Chief of Staff of the Polish Army, was taken during Sikorski's visit to the Middle East. On July 4, 1943, during the return journey, his plane crashed near Gibraltar, killing him, General Klimecki, Col. Victor Cazalet, M.P. (British liaison officer to the Polish Forces), and others.

Photo, Raynolds



POLISH GUNNERS WITH THE EIGHTH ARMY

Polish gunners in action with a 25-pounder in the mountains of central Italy during the winter of 1943-44. The Polish Second Corps, under Lt.-Gen. Wladyslaw Anders, had undergone intensive training in the Middle East before it arrived in Italy, where it did splendid service with the Eighth Army, both in and behind the fighting line. Polish sappers helped to clear roads deep in snow for troops and transport to go through.

Photo, British Official

sage to his countrymen in which, among other things, he indicated the hopes of his Government that Russia would soon initiate a move to solve current Soviet-Polish problems—a hope not strengthened when M. Vyshinsky, Deputy Commissar for Foreign Affairs, stated in Moscow on May 6 that the Polish Government, under the influence of the pro-Hitlerites within it and within the Polish press, had provoked the Soviet suspension of diplomatic relations. This and other allegations were refuted by Count Raczynski, the Polish Foreign Minister, in a statement on May 7.

Then, on July 4, came the news of the death of Poland's brilliant 63-year-old soldier statesman, Gen. Wladyslaw

Death of General Sikorski Sikorski, in an air crash near Gibraltar. This tragedy, described in messages of sympathy

and tributes to the General's great qualities as a very deep loss to the Allies, was the culmination of a tour of the Middle East, during which the General reviewed Polish troops there, had important talks with Gen. Sir Henry Maitland Wilson and King George of the Hellenes, and, at a press conference in Cairo on July 2, declared that it was imperative that East Prussia and Danzig should come under Polish control after the war.

On July 14 a new Polish Government was formed, though not without difficulties, with M. Stanislaw Mikolajczyk as Prime Minister, M. Tadeusz Romer,

Foreign Minister, and M. Kot as Minister of Information (a post he had held since May 19). Gen. Kasimierz Sosnkowski, who was second-in-command to Marshal Smigly-Rydz in 1939, was appointed by the President as C-in-C. of the Polish armed forces. Two days later (July 16) M. Mikolajczyk stated that his Government would base its policy on the principles laid down by General Sikorski. In internal policy it would be guided by the wishes of the Polish people; in foreign policy it would loyally collaborate with the United Nations. It also fully subscribed to the idea of a federation of East-Central European nations. A fuller statement of policy which the Prime Minister made on July 27 was unanimously approved by the Polish National Council.

Poland's military contribution to the end of 1943 (excluding the Polish and French campaigns) was impressive, particularly in the air where, from October 30, 1940, to January 1, 1944, the Polish Air Force in Britain, the third largest in this country, destroyed 610 German planes with 163 probables; damaged 210; made 703 operational flights and 6,350 sorties, dropping over 14½ million lb. of H.E.; engaged upon 151 mine-laying operations in enemy waters; probably destroyed six U-boats and damaged seven in the Battle of the Atlantic, and ferried over 1,000 planes across Africa to the Middle East and beyond. Its pilots had been awarded 153 British awards, including four

D.S.O.s. The Polish Navy, one-third larger at the end of 1943 than at September 1, 1939, up to November 28 (the 25th anniversary of its formation), had sunk three enemy destroyers, probably eight submarines, one auxiliary cruiser, several minesweepers, and 35 other ships.

The Polish Ministry of National Defence, reviewing the achievements of the army up to August 5, 1943, stated that total casualties on all fronts since September 1, 1939, amounted to 902,095. Since the Battle of France, a highly trained and fully equipped army of 80,000 men had been assembled in the Middle East under Lt.-Gen. Wladyslaw Anders, while a smaller army, comprising strong tank, artillery, infantry and parachute units, and 4,000 Polish A.T.S., was established in Britain.

The many reorganizations and changes in the Yugoslav Cabinet in London during 1943 were an indication of underlying uneasiness. On January 2 a **YUGOSLAVIA** new Cabinet (of 10 instead of 16 members) was appointed representative of all political parties, with Dr. Slobodan Yovanovitch as Premier, Minister of the Interior, and acting Foreign Minister, and Gen. Mihailovitch as War Minister. It was unhappily soon torn by dissensions, the main cause of this political disunity being possibly traceable to the Government's failure to define its attitude as to whether post-war Yugoslavia should be constituted as a federation, as desired by Croats and other minorities, or continue on the old unitary basis in which the Serbs were predominant.

On June 17 this Cabinet resigned. After several unsuccessful attempts, M. Milos Trifunovitch, as Premier and Minister of the Interior, formed a Cabinet of 14 on June 26, with M. Milan Grol as Foreign Minister and Gen. Mihailovitch as War Minister; the new Cabinet, while still representing all parties, numbered 10 Serbs to two Croats and two Slovenes. It decided to transfer the Government from London to Cairo, but before departure tried (and failed) to reach agreement on the post-war structure of the Yugoslav State. It resigned in its turn, and King Peter appointed a new Government of eight members composed almost entirely of civil servants, headed by Dr. Puritch as Prime Minister, Foreign Minister and Acting War Minister, with Gen. Mihailovitch still as War Minister. This new Government, however, also failed to reach agreement on post-war Yugoslavia; and Dr. Puritch emphasized in a broadcast to the Yugoslav peoples on August 20 that his administration was

a temporary working Government and "would not deal with questions of internal politics, which are, as King Peter has declared, the inseparable life of the people themselves in the country and which they will in agreement with our democratic King determine and settle for themselves." King Peter and his Government arrived in Cairo on September 29.

Following the acceptance of Italy as a co-belligerent in the war against Germany, Dr. Ivan Tchok, speaking for the Yugoslav Government on October 18, demanded the incorporation of Trieste into post-war Yugoslavia on the grounds that its entire hinterland was ethnographically Yugoslav and its Italian population "artificial."

A Royal decree of November 23 abrogated the "Law for the Protection of the State," which, introduced by King Alexander in 1928 to strengthen his authoritarian regime, gave the Government almost unlimited powers against the Opposition and had been used with great severity. "This step," said the official Yugoslav announcement, "has laid a solid foundation for the unhampered and free expression of the will of the broad masses with regard to the future organization of a democratic Yugoslavia."

Meanwhile, the differences between the Chetniks and the Partisans in Yugoslavia (see Chapter 273) resulted in political warfare between the exiled Yugoslav Government in Cairo and the Partisans, who used the Free Yugoslav radio as their mouthpiece. Charges and accusations, met with counter-charges, were bandied to and fro. Marshal Tito formed a Government on December 4, repudiated next day by the exiled Government, which also itself was repudiated on December 22 by the Anti-Fascist National Council, the political body representative of all sections supporting Tito. Appeals for unity, of which there were many, had no effect.

Lack of unity, not only among the patriots fighting the enemy in Greece but also among themselves, was one

of the problems facing
GREECE the exiled Greek
Government during

1943. On January 21, 1943, the Greek Cabinet issued an announcement in London outlining its post-war plans for a National Government; a programme repeated on July 4 by King George of the Hellenes in a broadcast to his people, in which he said that on the Greek Government's arrival in liberated Greece the members would resign and free general elections would be held within six months of the cessation of hostilities; from these elections would arise a new Government fully repre-

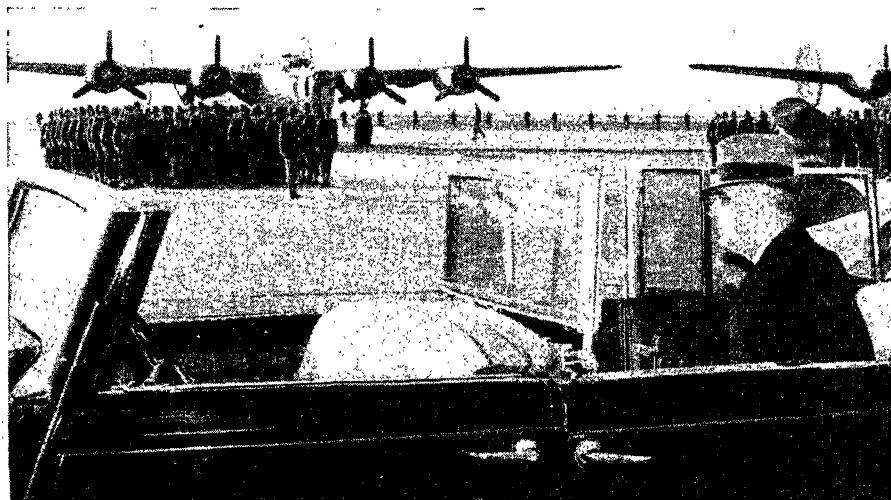
sentative of all Greek associations and currents of opinion.

On March 16 King George and M. Tsouderos, the Greek Premier, arrived in Cairo to settle disturbances among the Greek armed forces in the Middle East. The same day, as a result of conversations among Greeks representing every political party and the armed forces, including Partisans still fighting in Greece, and the consequent resignation of five members, the Cabinet was reshuffled, though without affecting the position of M. Tsouderos. The new Government was centred in Cairo.

The fall of Fascism in Italy was naturally hailed as a joyous event by the Greek Government, who were fully consulted regarding armistice terms and whose representative had been present at the signing of the Armistice at Gen. Eisenhower's H.Q. Nevertheless, it

viewed with understandable concern the acceptance of Italian co-belligerency, M. Tsouderos making a long statement on the matter on October 15. "... If, henceforth, in this policy of co-belligerency," he said, "questions concerning the political and administrative life of our country are not touched, and Greece is not denied the priority to which she is entitled, I am certain that we Greeks will continue to fight for the common victory without criticism."

A fine gesture designed to promote unity, especially among the Greek patriots who were then unfortunately intent on liquidating one another, was made by King George in a letter to M. Tsouderos on November 8. He said that when the time came he would again consult the Government regarding the question of his return to liberated Greece, this being interpreted as a



YUGOSLAV BOMBER UNIT IN U.S.A.

President Roosevelt taking part in the dedication at Washington of four Liberator bombers, to be flown by a newly formed Yugoslav unit, 40 strong, of the U.S. Army Air Forces. He said, 'May these planes fulfil their mission . . . to drop bombs on our common enemy . . . to deliver to your compatriots much-needed supplies.' Below, King Peter accepts the Liberators. Behind him is Maj.-Gen. Ralph Royce, commanding U.S. Forces, Middle East.



cession to the demand of some sections of the Greek populace for a plebiscite on the question of monarchy to precede the King's return to Greece.

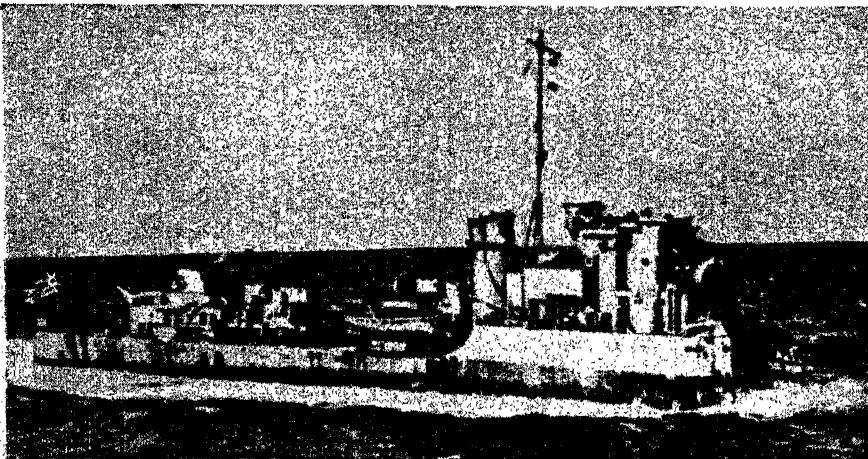
On December 14 M. Tsouderos outlined his Government's programme for post-war Greece and the vital matter of the stabilization of the Balkans, thus: (1) preparations for King George's return; (2) a coalition of exiled parties and those still remaining in Greece in the period immediately following liberation; (3) development of a Balkan Union; (4) economic security of the Balkans; (5) final welding of Greece's internal unity.

Meanwhile, internecine warfare continued among the Greek patriots. Direct appeals for unity made by M. Tsouderos and King George on October 28 and on December 21 had little effect; the message broadcast by M. Sophocles Venizeles (Minister for Marine) in early December—"the pur-



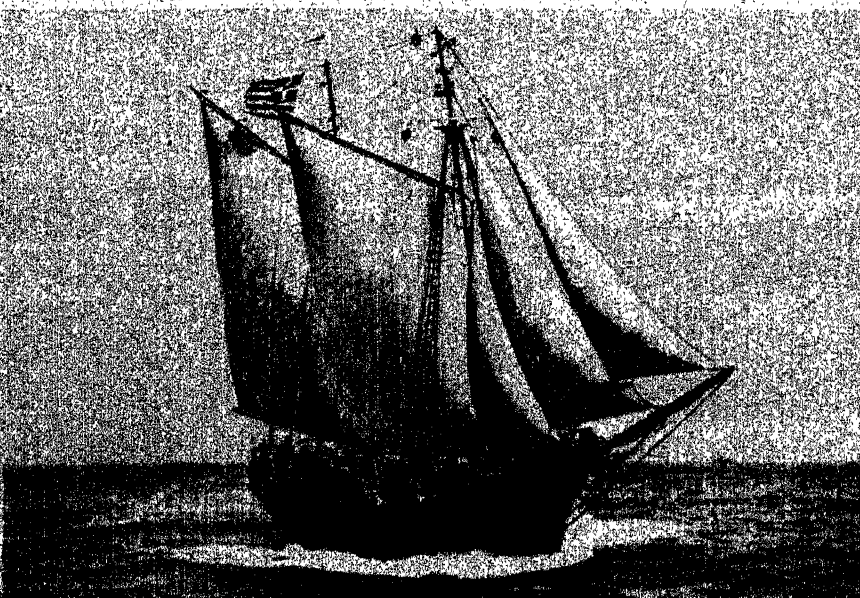
GREEKS IN TRAINING

Greek units, formed of men who escaped when Axis forces overran Greece and of Greeks who rallied from all over the world to their country's call, saw service in the campaigns of the Western Desert. Here, a detachment undergoing special training with armoured cars learns about maintenance of radio equipment.



SHE CAME HOME STERN FOREMOST

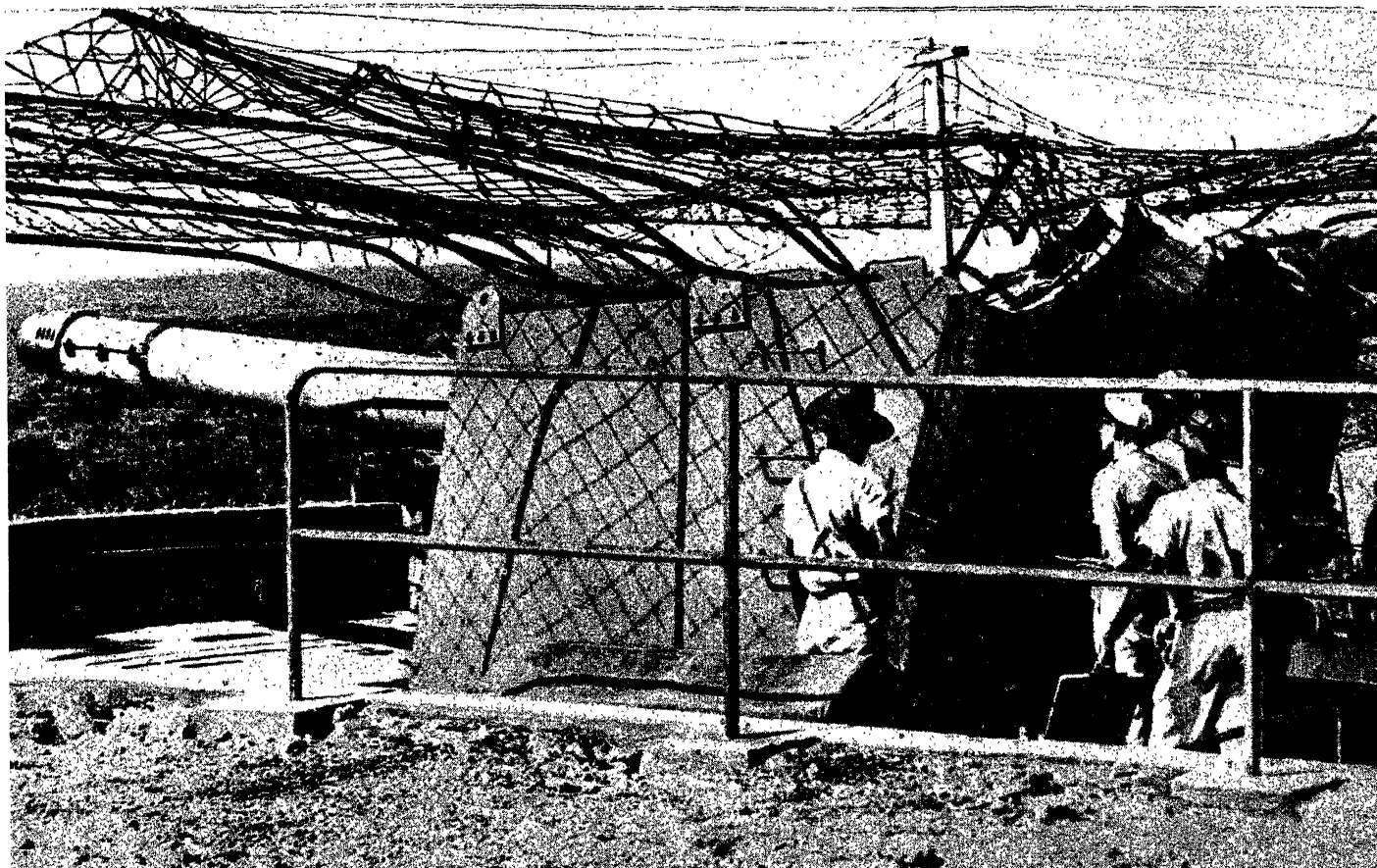
The Greek destroyer 'Adrias' (formerly the British destroyer 'Border') entering Alexandria harbour. Her bows were blown away during operations off Leros. H.M.S. 'Hurworth,' about to take off her crew, struck a mine and sank. 'Adrias' became the rescuer, and made port stern first, carrying 'Hurworth' survivors, on St. Nicholas Day (Dec. 6), 1943. Five of her crew received the highest Greek award for gallantry. Below, a Greek sailing ship turned minesweeper.



suit of political ends while the struggle for liberty is proceeding, and claims to monopolize the national struggle, cannot be permitted"—was no more effective.

Another source of grave trouble was the systematic efforts of the Bulgarians to denationalize the Greek territory under their occupation, some 15,000 Greeks having been massacred up to March 25, 1943, in Thrace and Macedonia. Speaking in the House of Commons on March 24, Mr. Richard Law, Under-Secretary of the Foreign Office, said, "H.M. Government regard as null and void any legislation or other acts by the Bulgarian Government aimed at Bulgarizing the Greek territory they covet. . . ." The Greek Government announced on Greek Independence Day (March 25) that they would pay pensions to the families of all those killed since the enemy occupation, the rate being the same as that for families of Greek soldiers killed in action.

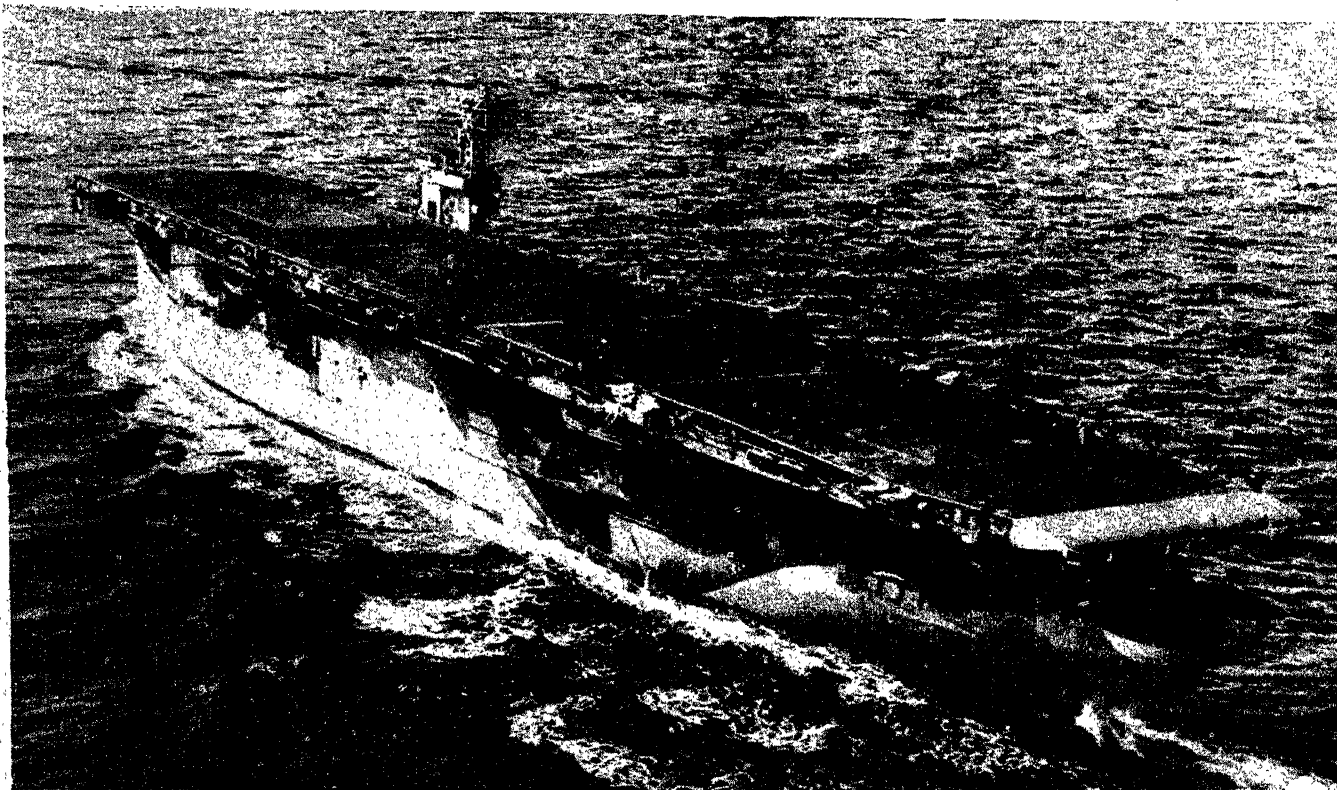
Of the war contribution of exiled Greeks, the major part was borne by the Royal Hellenic Navy, comprising in mid-May 1943 some 33 ships with 5,450 personnel (later enlarged by the transfer of five small warships from the Royal Navy), which rendered excellent service in the Mediterranean and Aegean Seas; while in the air valuable assistance was given in the Mediterranean area by the Royal Hellenic Air Force of one fighter and one bomber squadron.



WITH THE ROYAL NETHERLANDS FORCES OVERSEAS

Germany overran the Netherlands in 1940 ; Japan swept through the Netherlands East Indies in 1942. But Surinam (Dutch Guiana) and Curaçao, as well as some of the smaller East Indian islands, remained free. Above, Dutch-manned coastal batteries at Curaçao, where big installations refine crude oil from Venezuela for the use of the United Nations. Curaçao has a well-armed and well-trained militia, but owing to the importance of her oil refineries and her port facilities, she accepted Allied military aid for the duration of the war. Below, Royal Netherlands Indies troops on active service during 1943 in one of the islands not occupied by the Japanese in their 1942 advance.

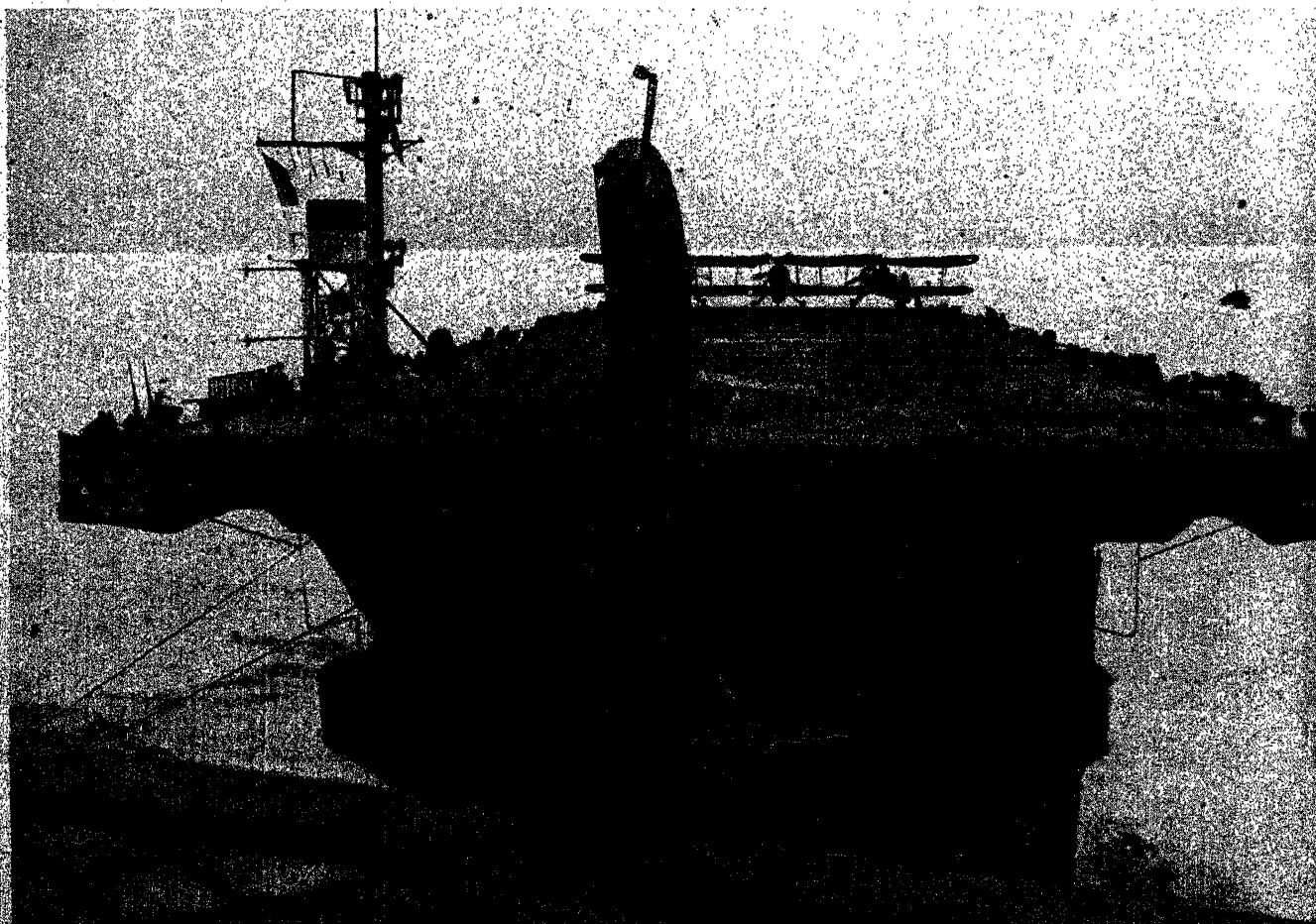


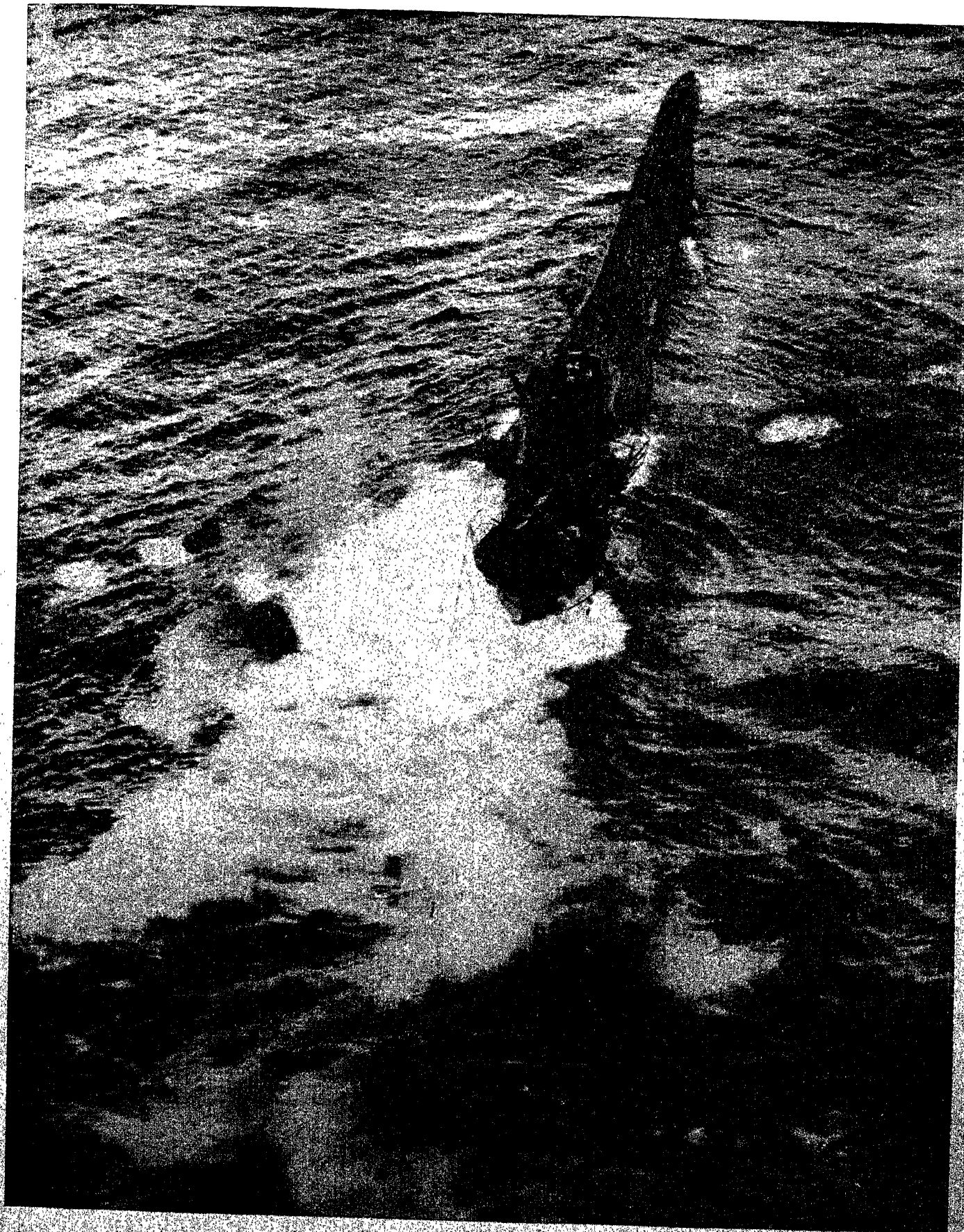


U-BOAT HUNTERS OF THE ROYAL NAVY

Aircraft carriers, specially built and also converted from peace-time merchant ships, played a great part in the Royal Navy's battle against U-boats. Their aircraft closed the Atlantic gap, and gave protection to vessels too far from port for land-based aeroplanes to guard them. (See Chapter 275.) Above, H.M. escort carrier 'Battler,' a 'pocket' carrier built for anti-U-boat work. Below, H.M.S. 'Archer,' a converted merchant ship as seen from a Swordfish taking off from her flight deck.

Photos, British Official ; Planet News

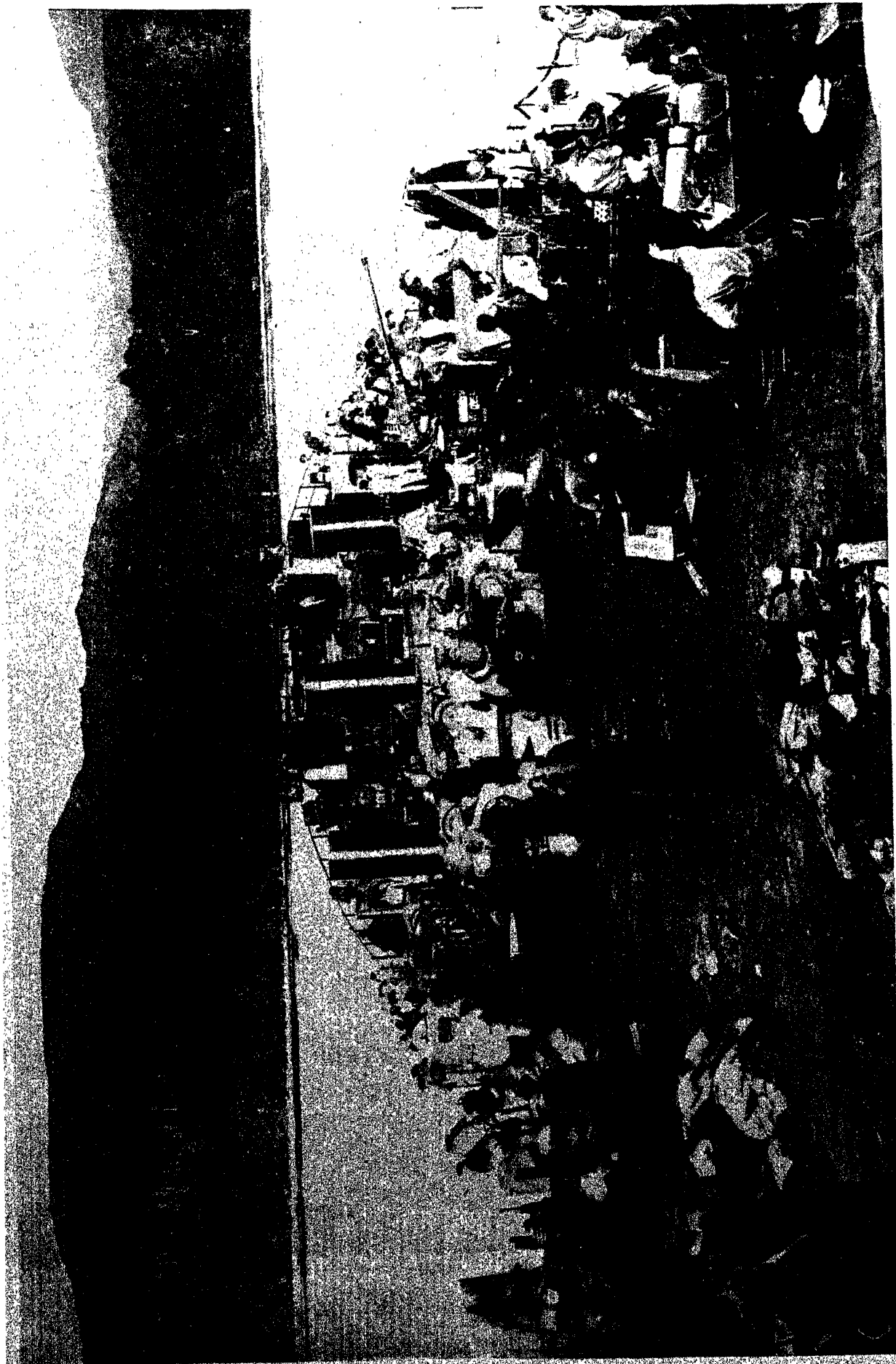




DEATH DIVE OF A U-BOAT

The conning-tower of this enemy submarine was sighted 12 miles away by a R.A.A.F. Sunderland of Coastal Command at six minutes before noon. The Sunderland closed, dived under the U-boat's fire, put her guns out of action, then straddled her with depth charges. As the flying-boat made a steep turn to come in again to the attack, it took the photograph showing the submarine's stern under water. Before the aircraft could finish a third turn, the submarine's bows rose sharply and she sank. The action was over thirty seconds after noon.

Photo: R.A.A.F.



GOING IN TO ATTACK FINSCH HAFEN

Australian troops nearing the beach upon which they disembarked on 22 September, 1943, under cover of U.S. warships and aircraft, to attack Finschhafen, 70 miles from Lae. Beach-heads were quickly secured, Japanese opposition—apart from snipers—being negligible. The landings were effected without the loss of a ship or a man, but as the warships were withdrawing, they were attacked by some 30 Japanese bombers and 40 Zeros. U.S. fighters shot down 40 enemy planes (with five probables) for the loss of three machines (one pilot safe). No ship suffered damage.

CRUSHING DEFEAT OF THE U-BOAT

The history of the Merchant Service in 1943 was very different from that of 1942 (see Chapter 242). In July of that year enemy sinkings reached their highest since 1939. But the turn of the year marked the turn in this phase of the war: not only was Allied shipbuilding outstripping Allied losses, but losses were decreasing—until in the first half of September no allied ships were lost anywhere by U-boat action, a record for this war and the last

THE U-boat was defeated in 1943. That year saw the culmination of over three-and-half years' constant, bitter struggle, a struggle against as great a threat to Britain as the threat of invasion in 1940; after the defeat of the Luftwaffe in the Battle of Britain, the U-boat represented the enemy's one hope of victory over the Western Powers. "The defeat of the U-boat and the improvement of the margin of shipbuilding resources are the prelude to all aggressive operations." Those words of Mr. Churchill were quoted in Chapter 242; they may be repeated to give the measure of achievement at sea in 1943. A more gradual affair than the victories on land or in the air, or in a naval engagement, it passed largely unhailed, and its significance tended to be overlooked at the time. But it shaped the events of the whole of the Anglo-American war effort.

How was the defeat of the U-boat accomplished? No single feature of this complex and diversified form of warfare was responsible for the success; it was the combination of invention, strategy, experience, training, diplomacy and sheer strength. New weapons and new tactics were used. Naval and air crews, and merchant ships' gunners, became more and more efficient in defence and attack. New bases were gained. But, above all, the strength of convoy protection was greatly increased, and most significantly increased in the air. The convoy system, indeed, was finally vindicated.

As recorded in Chapter 242, the German submarine campaign reached its peak in the second half of 1942. Though Allied losses the Allied losses were noticeably reduced in December of that year be Too High and the first two months of 1943, they were still at a dangerous level. The balance of losses and gains was now on the right side; the merchant fleets were at last increasing month by month. But too many ships were carrying their cargoes and sometimes their crews—to the bottom of the oceans.

"It is a horrible thing," Mr. Churchill declared, "to plan ahead in cold blood on the basis of losing hundreds of thousands of

tons a month, even if you can show a favourable balance at the end of a year. The waste of precious cargoes, the destruction of so many noble ships, the loss of heroic crews all combine to constitute a repulsive and sombre panorama. We cannot possibly rest content with losses on this scale, even though they are outweighed by new building, even if they are not for that reason mortal in character."

In January the Canadian Chief of Naval Staff, Vice-Admiral Percy W. Nelles, gave the warning: "We have reason to believe German submarine strength is increasing." He put the gain at something more than 10 a month. "We are still far from winning the war against the submarine," the New York

Times declared, adding that "our losses in this battle, in fact, imperil what we have managed to gain in every other battle." Another leading American newspaper wrote: "The submarine defence is just about holding the enemy at the present time; it is not yet fighting a winning battle." In London an International Seamen's Conference called for greater protection by shore-based and ship-based aircraft, more effective grouping of fast and slow convoys, and a "vigorous offensive action against the submarine menace at sea and on land, in particular by bombardment . . . of the naval bases of submarines . . . and the industrial establishments concerned with the building and repairing of submarines."

On both sides of the Atlantic the authorities were pressed to reveal the extent of the losses suffered. Under the title, 'Peril at Sea, the at Sea' London Economist described the submarine war as "the one successful offensive which Hitler is still waging." The principle of convoy protection, it was noted, was defence. "With the aid of radio detection and sufficient aircraft, it may be possible to turn defence into attack far more than has yet been done. . . . The only sure means of winning this struggle is to bring the German underwater navy to battle and to destroy it." The words were prophetic: within a few months the U-boats were brought to battle and badly mauled, if not destroyed.

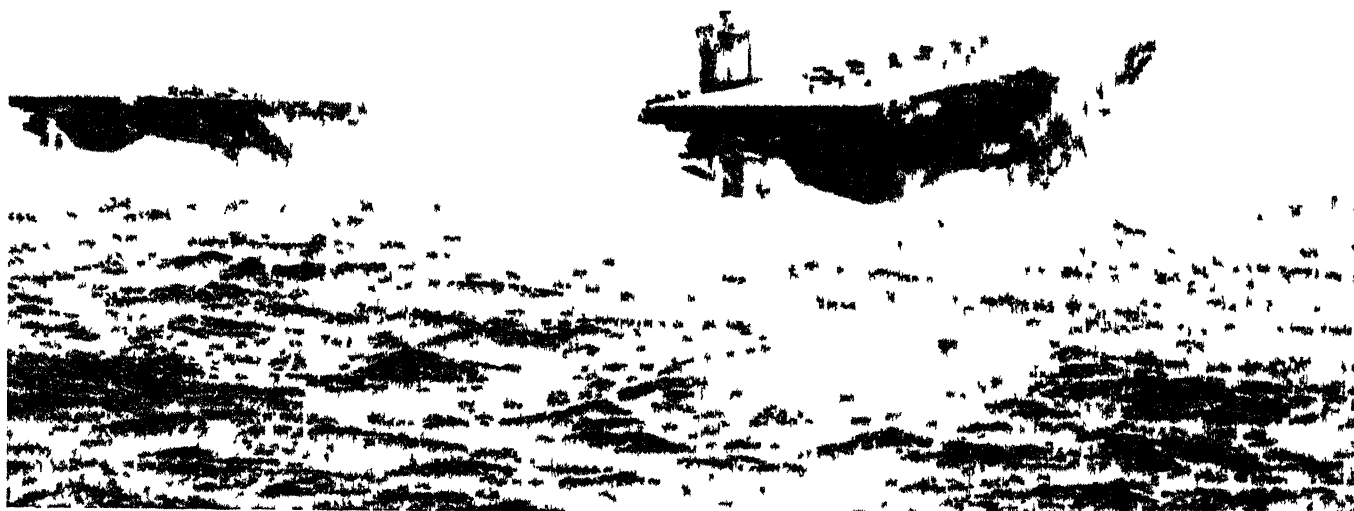
Already, by the beginning of 1943, the U-boat weapon had been blunted, the rate of killings had been steadily lowered. The steady diminution in the destruction wrought by the U-boats was referred to by Mr. Churchill in reviewing the war situation in the House of Commons on February 11, 1943. In the first year of the war, each operational U-boat that was at work, he stated, accounted for an average of 19 ships; in the second year for an average of 12, and in the third year for an average of 7½.

In January Admiral Karl Doenitz, formerly in charge of the U-boat fleets, became Commander-in-Chief of the German Navy, and this appointment



FRESH WATER FROM THE SEA

Lt. J. H. G. Goodfellow, R.N.V.R. (left), invented a still, for use in lifeboats or on board ship if drinking water ran out, which produced fresh water from the sea in a few moments. It worked on paraffin, solid fuel, or wood. The inventor here demonstrates it to Admiral Sir Martin Dumbarton-Smith, V.C. Photo, Keystone



CARRIER ESCORT FOR AN ALLIED CONVOY

HMS Avenger and HMS Biter in stormy weather fighters ranged on their pitching flight decks. They were two of 38 auxiliary carriers of about 10,000 tons transferred for convoy escort duty from the US Navy to the Royal Navy under Lease Lend. Avenger, a converted merchantman, was lost during the landing operations in French North Africa in November 1942. Aircraft of Biter played a big part in a bitter Atlantic convoy battle in May 1943.

was regarded as the signal of a renewed offensive. "The day will come when I shall offer Churchill a first-rate submarine war," Doernitz declared, threatening at the same time to smash the British supply sea line with a new submarine weapon." Captain Wolfgang Luth, U-boat ace, said that Germany had "an important invention" which would be put into all U-boats and enable them to resume their fight against Allied shipping.

But Allied losses were reduced in January and February. The following month, however, they again rose sharply

—though they did not reach the very high totals of the spring and summer of 1942,

during which year the monthly figure had been some 600,000 tons gross. March losses, it was stated, were substantially exceeded by new construction, but at this time new ships were being constructed in United Nations' shipyards at a rate of about 1,100,000 tons gross a month. The Germans claimed that 351,600 tons of Allied shipping was sunk in March. April saw some improvement in the situation, the guarded official description was that "sinkings were low compared with March." German claims dropped to 415,000 tons.

The turn of the tide came in May 1943—and it was marked principally by success in offence rather than defence. In a special statement made in the House of Commons on June 2, the First Lord of the Admiralty revealed that the number of U-boats destroyed in May had probably exceeded the number brought into service. "Certainly May is the best month of the war for kills so far," Mr. A. V. Alexander declared. He went on to disclose how

the rate of U-boat destruction had been rising steadily. During the previous 12 months, he said, the kills had exceeded those for the whole of the war up to then, while in the last half of that period the destruction rate had been increased by 25 per cent. Mr. Alexander added the warning that setbacks and periods of heavy loss might still be encountered. The enemy are bound to make great efforts to alter the present situation.

Similar warnings against over-optimism were made in the United States. But it was the Prime Minister, Mr. Churchill, who tentatively and prophetically gave the turn of events its historical perspective. In the House of Commons on June 8 he confirmed that "in May, for the first time, our killings of U-boats substantially outnumbered the U-boat output"—30 submarines had been destroyed. "That," he added, "may be a fateful milestone." And it was

On July 10 a statement was issued simultaneously from Downing Street and the White House which revealed that the losses of Allied and neutral merchant ships from submarine attacks in June were the lowest since America entered the war in December 1941, and that losses at sea from all forms of enemy action were the lowest since the war began (the best record of any former month for which official figures were issued was under 100,000 tons gross sunk in March 1940).

This was the first of the reports on the war at sea to be issued thereafter on the 10th of each month under the authority of the Prime Minister and Mr. Roosevelt. Apart from specially authorized announcements "or duly censored accounts of particular incidents or actions," these statements, it was

announced, were to be the only ones to be made on behalf of the British and American Governments. The purpose was to avoid conflicting or unauthorized reports—official, semi-official and unofficial—being issued on both sides of the Atlantic about the anti-U-boat war and the methods and devices employed in it. The enemy, by piecing together portions of these statements, it was pointed out, "may glean more information than is desirable about these affairs." So far as the general picture was concerned, however, the public was in this way given the first opportunity to follow the course of the war at sea with the aid of regular, official reports since publication of the figures of shipping losses was suspended by the British Admiralty in the summer of 1941.

The new situation at sea was soon reflected in the marine insurance market. Early in June a new "schedule" of war risk rates on cargo was issued in London which showed more numerous, more widespread and perhaps larger reductions in

Reduction in War Risk Rates

rates than any previous schedules for a very long time. The most striking feature was to be found in the case of voyages through the Mediterranean. For three years such voyages had been excluded from the schedule altogether. By the end of May 1943 the Germans and Italians had been thrown out of North Africa. The Italian island of Pantelleria, devastated from the air and on the verge of surrender, had already been rendered harmless. The Mediterranean had been reopened as a route for "commercial traffic." Voyages to Aden and the Red Sea reappeared in the schedules of insurance against war risks at a rate of 10 per cent via the Mediterranean for corresponding destinations via the Cape of Good Hope the rate was 15 per cent. "Allied shipping now moves almost unmolested from one end of the Mediter-

men to the other. The U.S. War Secretary declared that risk insurance rates on both routes were also reduced, and it was notable that United Kingdom east coast ports were included in the schedules for overseas voyages on a par with west and south coast ports.

Lloyd's had become as sure for Allied shipping as the Bristol Channel Underwriters, as always, were conducting their business not on hopes or anticipations nor on the more optimistic assurances of high officials: it was results—improved claims experience—which had justified the amendments.

A combination of developments enabled the Allies to surmount the submarine menace. Early in the year it was revealed that for some months the highest priority had been given to the construction of convoy escort craft. To some extent the new policy impinged on the mercantile shipbuilding programmes in Britain, and to a lesser extent in the United States and Canada, the theory being that a ship saved was better than a ship built. The corvettes, which had been built in considerable numbers for convoy duties, were gradually superseded in the construction programme by new, faster and better-armed vessels known as frigates (see Chapter 254).

Then gradually there came into service what was perhaps an even more effective weapon—aircraft carriers for

Aircraft new vessels, built in
Carriers on large numbers in the
Convoy Duty United States, had been dovetailed into the highly organized shipbuilding programme by utilizing merchant ship hulls still in the construction stage. Their success had already been proved by earlier conversions. But now the building of escort carriers, or "Woolworth" carriers, as

they were called, was well under way. The vessels carried much more powerful spotting and torpedo planes, and they soon proved their worth in the air as well as at sea. At this time more self patrols of long-ranged VLR (very long range) aircraft operating from both sides of the Atlantic, had forced the U-boat packs to concentrate their attacks in the middle of the Atlantic outside the bombers' range: they had already been driven from their once "happy hunting ground" on the United States Atlantic seaboard and the Caribbean (see Chapter 214). In May the German radio spokesman, Vice-Admiral Luetzow, explaining the reduced success of the U-boats, said: "It is true that aircraft based on the coasts of both sides of the Atlantic cover a large part of the ocean, but there is still a large gap which they cannot reach." The escort carriers helped to cover that gap.

Britain's Coastal Command was also steadily extending the range of its convoy protection, operating sometimes 1,000 miles from base (see page 2658). It was not until the end of July, however, that a new and significant stage was reached when a long range Liberator on an operational sortie from Newfoundland, was diverted in mid-ocean and ordered to land at a Coastal Command station in Northern Ireland. "The Atlantic Gap" had virtually disappeared.

And all the time surface protection was also being increased. It became possible for units to detach themselves from a convoy to continue fighting U-boats while the convoy proceeded with still adequate protection. Before,

submarines had often escaped because screening warships could not be spared to carry home their attacks without exposing the convoy to even greater dangers through inadequate protection than those it already suffered.

Little, of course, was revealed of achievements in the field of scientific invention. But in February it was disclosed that new methods of detecting U-boats on the surface at night or in fog were in use and that these instruments were particularly valuable to anti-submarine aircraft.

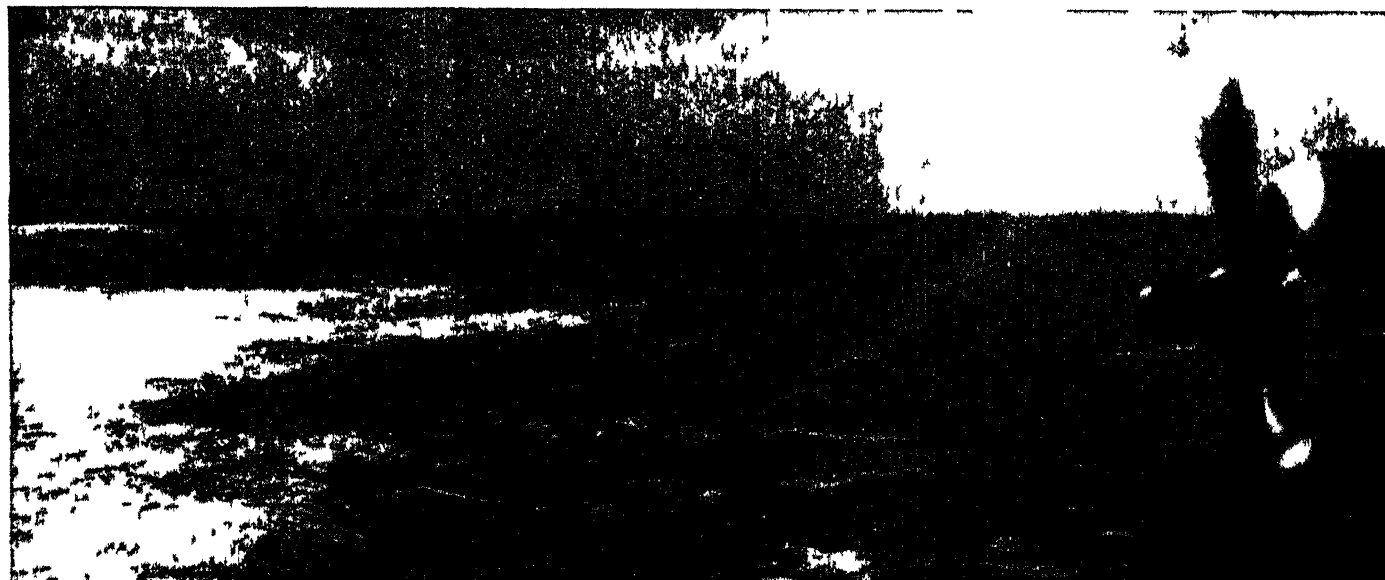
Six months later some details were published of a secret weapon described as a powerful searchlight carried by Coastal Command aircraft known as the **Leigh Light**. **Leigh Light Squadrons** **Squadrons** The searchlight could throw on the water a beam many millions of candle-power in strength. It was at night that the submarines surfaced for recharging their batteries, as well as for cruising to the operational areas in mid-Atlantic. The new weapon was described as "the keystone of the success in the air offensive against U-boats in the Atlantic, where a high percentage of attacks to sightings has been achieved in darkness." The searchlight was developed by Wing Commander H. de V. Leigh, OBE, DFC. The offensive against the submarine was being carried out day and night.

Earlier in the year references were made to "a new type of anti-submarine device" in use by the U.S. Navy which was "more effective than the standard depth charges." It could be used in conjunction with depth charges to

COASTAL COMMAND ON ANTI-SUBMARINE PATROL

A Liberator of Coastal Command in flight above a tanker bringing oil to Britain, keeping watch for U-boats, and ready to attack at any sign of the enemy. During 1943 Coastal Command flew over 40,000 sorties (more than 100 a day) on anti-submarine and convoy escort duty, sinking more U-boats in that one year than in the whole period September 1939 to the end of 1942.

Photo British Official



provide a "double-barrelled barrage." Early in May it was announced from Washington that five U-boats had been sunk in the Atlantic while they were attacking a west-bound convoy. "One of them was sunk," it was added, "by a new weapon, the nature of which is a closely guarded secret." In July a German-controlled French paper stated that the Reich had temporarily ceased its undersea offensive. The British, it was explained, had recently used a "new submarine mine" which was particularly efficacious. "Whether dropped by a destroyer or aeroplane it finds its mark to very great depths." The U-boats, it was added, had been recalled and would be equipped with "special devices to permit them to resume their work with increased power."

It was not enough to provide more weapons of defence and attack, to employ new devices and tactics. The effective use of each depended on

Anti-U-Boat Campaign by Allies

achieving the greatest measure of co-operation, on the one hand, between naval

staffs on both sides of the Atlantic and, on the other, between the sea and air forces involved in the battle. On March 16 it was announced that a conference of American, British and Canadian officers had recently been held in Washington under the chairmanship of Admiral Ernest J. King, Commander-in-Chief of the United States Fleet—"one of a series of Allied conferences which have been and will continue to be held, in order that all phases of the anti-U-boat campaign can be kept constantly under review, that information and views can be exchanged and that anti-U-boat measures can be adjusted to best advantage." It was added that complete agreement was reached on the policy to be pursued in the protection of Allied shipping in the Atlantic and in the best methods of employing the Allied escort vessels, anti-submarine craft and aircraft in defeating the U-boat menace. Naval and air staffs of each country were represented.

The policy of integrating offensive and defensive activities in the Atlantic was carried a stage further at the end of May. It was announced from Ottawa that Canada and Britain had assumed complete charge of trade convoys from north-western Atlantic ports to the United Kingdom. The United States retained strategic responsibility for the western Atlantic and for escort operations not related to British trade convoys and Canadian local traffic. The degree of co-operation



ANTI-U-BOAT CHIEF

Speaking at Weston-super-Mare on November 6, 1943, Mr. A. V. Alexander, First Lord of the Admiralty, disclosed that Capt. C. P. Clarke, of Somerset (above), was the man who for two years had directed the successful Allied operations against U-boats.

Photo, G.P.U.

achieved between the air and sea forces, a powerful factor in the success, was described by Sir Archibald Sinclair, Secretary of State for Air:

The Battle of the Atlantic is not a series of single combats between the U-boat and the aircraft or the warship, but is made up of prolonged engagements over thousands of miles of sea, in which the work of the surface forces is at every stage integrated with the work of aircraft. The aircraft



C-IN-C, GERMAN NAVY

Admiral Karl Doenitz, here addressing U-boat crews while on a tour of inspection as head of the German submarine service, became C-in-C. of the German Navy in January 1943. A U-boat commander of the 1914-18 war, he invented the 'wolf-pack' U-boat tactics.

and the escort vessel are nicely complementary: the escort vessel carries a bigger punch, and can track down a U-boat, once detected, even though submerged, but the range of vision of the escort vessel is limited; the aircraft is less certain of its kill but has, of course, an immensely greater range of vision and a better chance of surprising the enemy. A convoy may be assailed along the whole route across the ocean, first by U-boats and then by bombers and, at every stage, the work of the air and escort vessels on the surface is interlocked. Never has there been a happier period of relations between the Royal Navy and the Royal Air Force than in the past year.

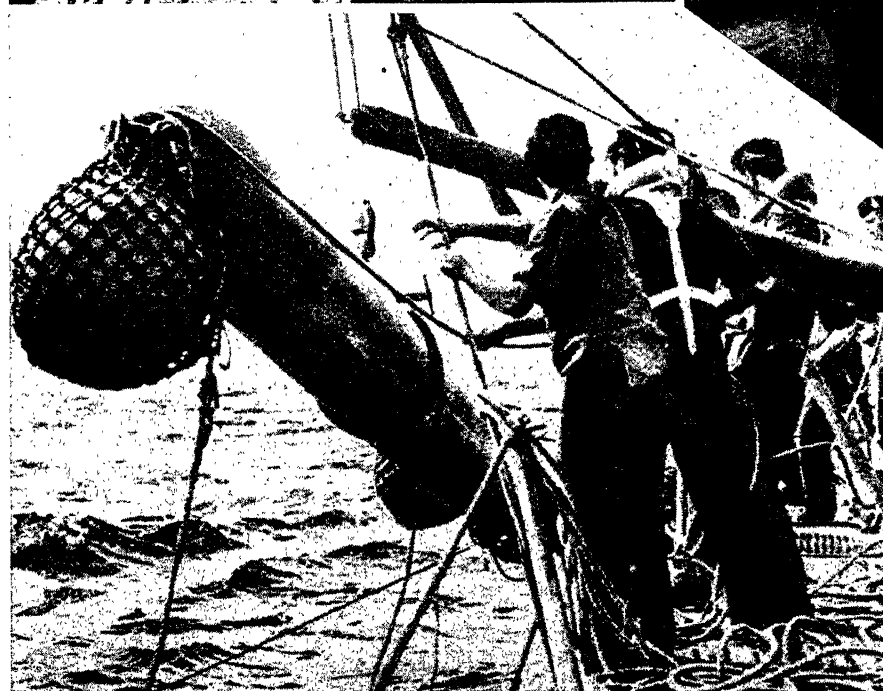
It was not until November 1943 that the name of one of the chief figures behind the anti-U-boat campaign was revealed. Captain C. P. Clarke, who at the age of 45 had for two years been Director of Operations against the enemy U-boats, was credited by Mr. A. V. Alexander with "an important share in the great success we have hewn out of the massive danger which confronted us."

The offensive spirit which marked operations at sea had its prelude in the increasingly heavy air raids on German submarine bases, shipyards and engine works from the beginning of the year. Including the activities of Coastal

Offensive Operations by Sea and Air

Command at sea, the U-boat war represented the chief preoccupation of the R.A.F., while the United States Army Air Force joined in with daylight attacks on bases and building yards at Lorient and Bordeaux, St. Nazaire and elsewhere. The heaviest attack yet delivered against the main base early in February was the eighth which Lorient had received in less than a month and the 56th since the summer of 1940. Within a week another 1,000-ton raid had been launched, followed by a further powerful attack three days later (see illus., page 2660).

Before the close of the year one more vital influence joined in the "combination of developments" which pronounced the doom of Germany's submarine effort. On October 12 the Prime Minister announced that, under the terms of a treaty dating back to 1373, the Portuguese Government had agreed to grant Britain facilities in the Azores which would "enable better protection to be given to merchant shipping in the Atlantic." This dramatic development made doubly sure the assurance of success. For the first time a vast area in mid-Atlantic, at one point reaching as far south as the Tropic of Cancer, was brought within range of bomber patrols. Some voyages were cut by many hundreds of miles, the equivalent of more ships. An alternative was provided to the Icelandic



SUPPLYING U-BOATS AT SEA

In order to keep their U-boat packs at sea, the Germans used big supply submarines to take fuel, victuals and ammunition to submarines preying on Allied shipping. 1. A pipeline, brought across from the supply submarine by rubber dinghy, is drawn aboard the U-boat to refuel her tanks. 2. Dinghy plying between supply vessel and ocean-going U-boat on the high seas. 3. Bringing torpedoes aboard: they have been floated across from the supply ship.

Photos, Planet News; Associated Press

At the beginning of the year few large convoys crossed the Atlantic without running into a U-boat pack. Some only of the great battles which developed were described at the time. The U-boats generally shadowed the convoy in the daytime, looking for stragglers, and attacked fiercely at nights or under cover of bad weather. In May came the announcement of four U-boats sunk—there were six “probables”—in the course of one convoy battle, the largest and longest up to that time. A brief action described by one of the officers of a corvette was typical of the fight:—

We had dropped a full load on one U-boat, then almost instantaneously saw torpedoes coming at us from another one. Seven were fired altogether. She submerged and we ran over her, then almost fell over another one immediately afterwards. They both cleared off and we went round to the first one, again preparing to ram. She had been blown up to the top and was turning in a circle, presumably to avoid us. Her crew were climbing over her, yelling to each other and to us and chucking rafts in the water. One chap had made up his mind to have a last pop at us and was clambering over the

route for the convoys, with its natural hazards for ships in the winter months and severities for the crews. The tasks of the Allied naval squadrons were eased; for the U-boats the hazards were multiplied. (See also Chapter 268.)

On Oct. 11 it was disclosed that the “Tirpitz,” most powerful battleship in the German fleet, had been torpedoed and seriously damaged in a daring attack by British midget submarines (see Chapter 284); a most dangerous threat to the Atlantic convoys had been lifted. A month previously the Italian Fleet had anchored under the guns of Malta. The whole situation at sea had changed.

We have seen something of the larger factors which gained success at sea—

the development of new weapons and new tactics, the perfection of organization, the effort to close the “Atlantic gap.” In the narrower perspective of the actual battles at sea the offensive spirit was again the distinguishing feature. “There are so many U-boats employed now,” the Prime Minister said early in June, “that it is almost impossible not to run into one or other of these great screens of U-boats which are spread out, and therefore you have to fight your way through. But there is no reason why we should regret that. On the contrary, it is around the convoys that the U-boats can best be destroyed.” The Germans were still relying on the “wolf-pack” system of attack.

fore end to get at the 4-in. gun. We gave him the works at about 100 yards.

By now we were doing the tightest turns—all but bending ourselves in two to keep inside the Jerry's turning circle. But it was all up with him. His periscope was smashed and his bows began to go up. Men were swimming about waving torches. In the middle of all this we got another contact and when we came back the submarine had sunk.

Off and on over a period of eight days more than 30 determined attacks were delivered by the U-boats. The convoy suffered some damage, it was stated, but the majority of the merchantmen reached port in safety. In a 10-day period about this time Coastal Command bombers on patrol sank for certain five U-boats, one near Iceland, two in the Bay of Biscay, the others along the western approaches.

An official Admiralty and Air Ministry

communiqué described how, later in May, combined forces of escort ships and aircraft of the Royal Navy and of aircraft of Coastal Command "successfully defended valuable Atlantic convoys against one of the fiercest and most sustained offensives ever mounted by U-boats." The battle ranged over hundreds of miles and extended intermittently throughout five days and five nights. Two U-boats were destroyed, three probably destroyed and others damaged. So effective was the anti-submarine offensive on this occasion that most of the engagements were fought many miles from the convoys and 97 per cent of the ships reached harbour without having been molested. Aircraft of the Fleet Air Arm from the carrier H.M.S. "Biter" first spotted the U-boats. They attacked and they

led destroyers and corvettes to other U-boats spotted from the air.

The following month it was possible to report that "complete shore to shore air cover, provided by carrier-borne aircraft working in co-operation with land-based aircraft," had assured the passage of another valuable convoy across the Atlantic "without interference from powerful forces of U-boats." A few weeks later it was revealed that a force of between 25 and 30 U-boats, concentrated in a North Atlantic shipping lane, had been subjected to such relentless assaults by surface ships and aircraft that the enemy was denied the opportunity to launch even one attack against a large east-bound convoy.

In the three months May, June and July more than 90 German submarines were destroyed. The July statement issued by Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Churchill revealed that "the steady flow of Transatlantic Flow transatlantic supplies Unmolested on the greatest scale has continued unmolested, and such sinkings as have taken place in distant areas have had but an insignificant effect on the conduct of the war by the Allies." The Allies' conduct of the war in July included the invasion of Sicily. For that operation and subsequent reinforcements, over 2,500 vessels were gathered together. Troop transports, supply ships and landing craft proceeded through the Atlantic and Mediterranean waters with scarcely any interference from U-boats. The official statement revealed that only about 80,000 tons of the huge armada were sunk. Altogether, July was "probably our most successful month": imports were high, shipping losses moderate, and U-boat sinkings heavy.

In August the shipping losses continued to decrease; Admiral Luetzow confessed that the "Allies have the upper hand." There were fewer U-boats operating—but the official statement was able to claim the astonishing record that more U-boats had been sunk than merchant ships. For four months up to September 18, Mr. Churchill revealed on Sept. 21, no merchant vessel was sunk by enemy action in the North Atlantic.

The submarine offensive was resumed in mid-September. The official statement for that month, however, recorded that the average merchant ship losses from all causes in September and August together made the best record of the war. On September 21 Mr. Churchill also stated that the net tonnage gain since the beginning of the year, allowing for losses from all causes, including marine risks, exceeded 6,000,000 tons. The failure of the



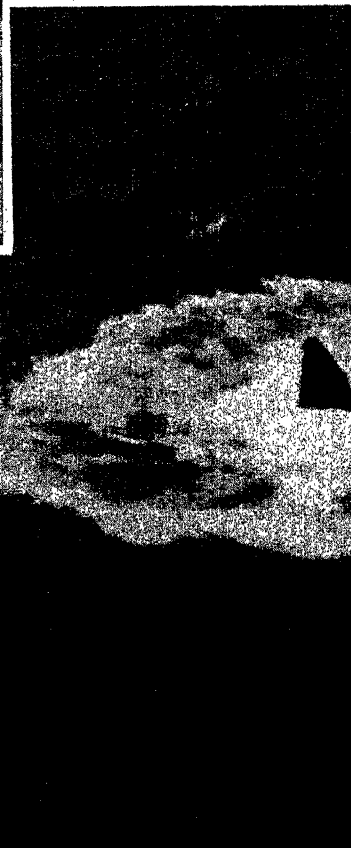
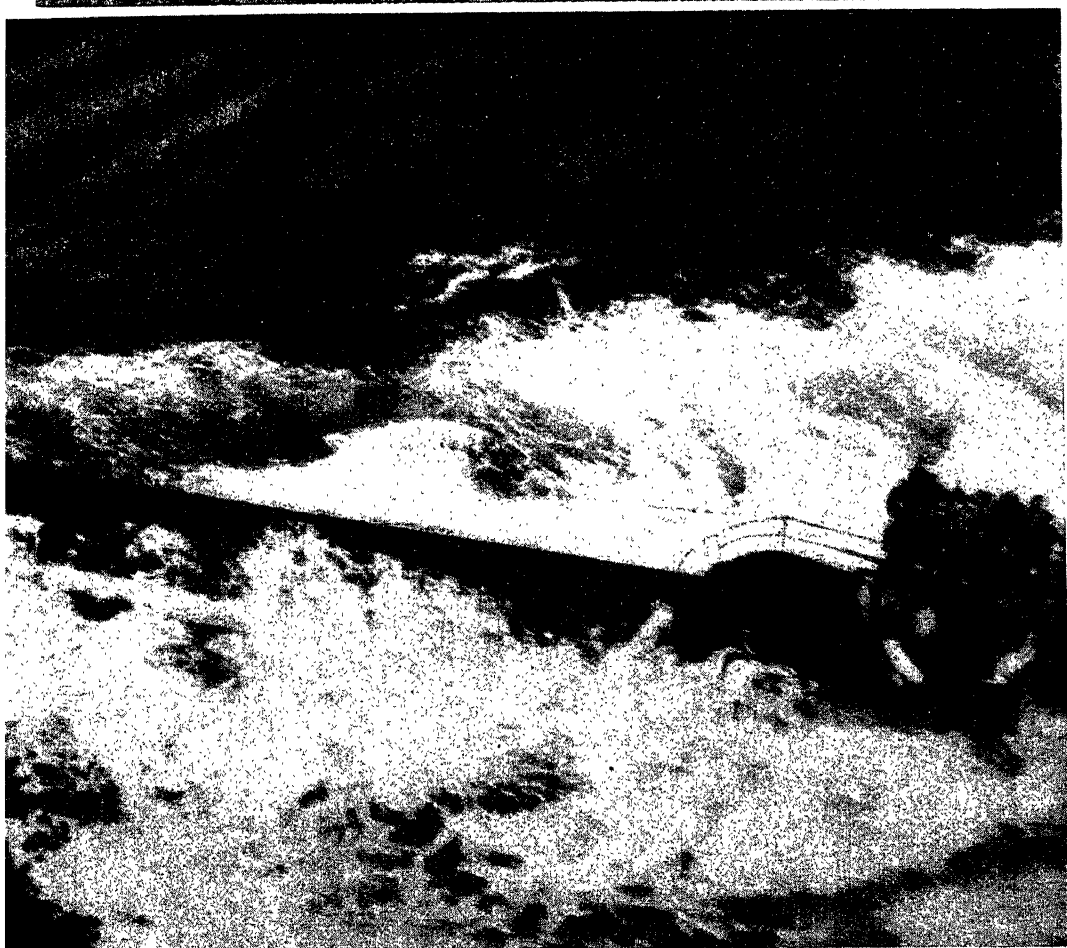
ON BOARD A CONVOY RESCUE SHIP

Cargo boats transformed into rescue ships, whose job it was to save seamen cast adrift by enemy action, accompanied convoys across the Atlantic. Equipped with a hospital and operating theatre and manned by merchant marines, a R.N.V.R. doctor, and medical orderlies, these ships saved hundreds of lives. A stretcher case is brought aboard, while a medical orderly applies artificial respiration to another man already rescued from drowning.



LAST MOMENTS WITH THE U-BOATS

Over 150 German submarines were sunk between May and October 1943. 1. A U-boat, brought to the surface by depth charges from H.M. corvette 'Starwort' and other ships. Her crew has lined up ready to dive overboard as their vessel begins to sink stern first. 2. Another, one of six destroyed by aircraft of Coastal Command, photographed by one of the attacking planes flying at low level a few seconds before she sank. 3. Bows of a third vessel sinking in the Bay of Biscay after an attack with depth charges by a Halifax of Coastal Command. 4. A ring of oil on the surface where an Australian Sunderland flying-boat sank yet another U-boat—one of five 'kills' in 10 days.



3

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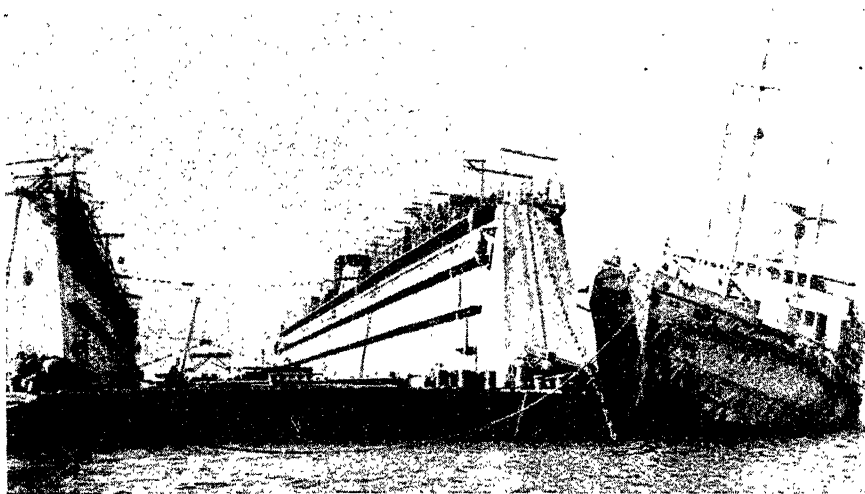
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SHIPS IN CONVOY

During the first fortnight of September 1943 not one Allied ship was sunk by a U-boat—a period without precedent in this war or the last, said Mr. Churchill; and during the whole year U-boats destroyed only 40 per cent of the merchant tonnage they sank in 1942. Surface ships and aircraft, both shore-based and carrier-borne, combined to produce this result. Top, a cruiser keeps constant watch over an Atlantic convoy. Centre, enemy aircraft in the Bay of Biscay bomb a convoy at sunset. U-boats joined in the attack, but both planes and submarines were driven off without loss. Left, American 'Liberty' ships unloading in a North African port; the ensigns of two British destroyers can be seen in the foreground.

Photos, British Official; Fox



SALVAGE OPERATIONS IN THE RED SEA

This huge floating dry dock, sunk by the Italians in Massawa harbour before the British occupied Eritrea in April 1941, was salvaged and restored to service by American workmen under the direction of Capt. Edward Ellsberg, U.S. Navy salvage expert. The Axis freighter alongside was one of a number reclaimed from the Red Sea and put into service again for the United Nations.

Photo, Pictorial Press

renewed "offensive" was demonstrated by the fact that the tonnage losses from all causes in October were the second lowest of any month of the war. In the three months from the beginning of August about 60 U-boats were destroyed—a larger number than the merchant ships sunk by U-boat action.

The October statement, however, disclosed that the Germans had introduced new U-boat weapons and new tactics. One of the new weapons was a bomb in the form of a rocket-assisted glider which was released from a considerable height and guided to its target by the parent aircraft. It could be used, however, only against ships operating near the enemy coastline. Another new weapon spoken of was an acoustic torpedo which, directed by the propeller vibrations of the ship attacked, was said to slant upwards to strike the vessel in the stern.

But at the close of the year there had been no marked change in the favourable turn of events which began in the spring. Although, on the whole, the U-boats had become more cautious, they made further efforts to interrupt the vast flow of supplies across the Atlantic. On one occasion submarine packs attempting to attack three Atlantic convoys over a period of about a week were driven off with the loss of six U-boats before any of the attacks had developed. Communiqués issued early in December told a similar story. During a series of engagements over a wide area, lasting two days and two nights, five U-boats were destroyed and three damaged, preventing a serious assault on two valuable convoys; 99

per cent of the ships escorted reached port in safety.

Several attempts were made by the enemy during the year to run the blockade of the European coastline. The sinking of a large German vessel in the Atlantic was announced at the beginning of January. The armed merchant ship "Silvaplana" (4,793 tons), with a cargo of rubber and tin from the Far East, was intercepted in April by H.M.S. "Adventure" about 200 miles off Cape Finisterre and scuttled herself. The crew and more than 100 German Navy men were taken prisoner.

A similar end to the motor vessel "Regensburg" (8,068 tons) was announced at the same time. Also bound from the Far East, she was intercepted by H.M.S. "Glasgow" between Greenland and Iceland. Most of her crew were drowned. The "Glasgow" was also involved in a spirited action which centred round the attempt of another blockade runner to make the French coast. She was a fast, modern ship of about 5,000 tons. A Sunderland flying boat spotted her making for a port in the Bay of Biscay. This was on December 27. The cruisers "Glasgow" and "Enterprise" were detailed to intercept. But later the same day the blockade runner was attacked by aircraft, set on fire and eventually sunk. The next morning 11 German destroyers were seen making for the scene of the action, presumably to keep a rendezvous with the merchant ship. The British cruisers made contact in the early afternoon and a running fight developed in which the destroyers fled for their bases. Three were sunk.

The sinking of two medium-sized United States passenger and cargo ships early in February with heavy loss of life was announced by the U.S. Navy Department. The vessels were torpedoed in the North Atlantic within a few days of each other. More than 850 people, mostly Service personnel, were killed or drowned.

Many months later it was learned that the Canadian Pacific passenger

**Sinking of
'Empress of
Canada'**



'DEMS' UNDERGO INSTRUCTION

"Dems"—gunners of Defensively Equipped Merchant Ships—were taught how to tackle E-boats and low-level air attacks with the 303 Lewis gun. Here is a group, including men who had been in action, at a training establishment in the south of England. The targets, a model E-boat and aircraft, were illuminated; the gun fired tracer.

Photo: Central Press

liner Empress of Canada of 21 500 tons was sunk by an Italian submarine off the West Coast of Africa in March. She was carrying troops, naval personnel, Italian prisoners and refugees. There were about 800 survivors. The submarine waited until the last man had left the ship before opening fire, but 400 died before rescue ships arrived.

In May the Japanese torpedoed and sank the hospital ship 'Centaur'. It was before dawn and the 'Centaur'

BLOCKADE-RUNNER'S END

On December 27 1943 a Sunderland flying-boat reported a blockade runner a fast modern ship of about 5 000 tons apparently inward bound for a French west coast port. Aircraft on patrol were diverted to the area the cruisers Glasgow and Enterprise prepared to intercept and bombers of Coastal Command were dispatched. A Liberator from a Czechoslovak squadron hit the blockade runner her stern burst into flame explosions followed and she sank enveloped in fire and smoke (below)



SHE SCUTTLED HERSELF

Spotted some 200 miles off Cape Finisterre on April 10 1943 and ordered to stop by H M S Adventure the German armed ship 'Silvaplana' (4 793 tons) was scuttled and abandoned by her crew. She was attempting to run the blockade with a cargo of rubber and tin from the Far East. Above, some of 'Adventure's' crew watch the end of the scuttled ship.



was fully illuminated, clearly marked with a Red Cross on either side of the hull and funnel and on the poop. The vessel was 40 miles east of Brisbane, Australia, and was sailing unescorted. Visibility was good. Of more than 300 people on board, 268 lost their lives.

Throughout 1943 the supply line to Northern Russia was maintained against hazards of weather and attacks of the enemy such as were described in Chapter 242. A huge flow of supplies went by ship into the Mediterranean—vessels totalling over 22,500 000 tons gross entered the ports of North Africa in the year to November 8. In the Far East merchant ships supported the mounting offensive which began to drive out the Japanese from their far flung Pacific outposts. The American shipbuilding effort reached its peak, more than doubling the 1942 figure with an output of 19,000,000 tons dead-weight. But the Battle of the Atlantic overshadowed all else in the war at sea. It was of the great convoy battles that the First Lord of the Admiralty said: "When the last U-boat is safe at the bottom of the sea or in our ports, and we are able to look back over the vast panorama of the whole war, these actions may well be seen worthy to be counted among the decisive maritime actions of history."

THE HUON GULF CAMPAIGN IN NEW GUINEA

Slowly but surely the Japanese were driven back in New Guinea during 1943. This second phase in the Allied operations designed to eject the enemy from New Guinea and the neighbouring island of New Britain, resulted in the reduction of his bases at Salamaua, Lae and Finschhafen, and the clearance of the country around the Huon Gulf. In this Chapter, Miss L. E. Cheesman describes the arduous but successful fighting which followed the fall of Buna and Gona recorded in Chapter 249.

THE ejection by Australian and American forces of the Japanese from the coastal area around Buna and Gona, which was completed in January 1943, concluded the first phase of the Allied operations which were intended eventually to clear the invaders from the whole island of New Guinea. By the last week of January not an enemy soldier remained in the Territory of Papua. But the Japanese still held strong bases at Salamaua and

to attack, and when once Japanese barges carrying reinforcements had safely reached the coast the troops could quickly disperse in the bush, thus avoiding concentrations.

So the fighting, which was carried out continuously until the early autumn, devolved upon Australian troops specially trained for the work. It was jungle warfare, not spectacular but particularly strenuous, the object being not only to locate and destroy enemy fortified positions, but to clear each area in turn in preparation for the main onslaughts on the bases. The devastating precision of the blows that followed was in great part due to the dogged courage and endurance of the Australian troops who prepared the way.

A violent battle for Wau took place in January. Wau town, with its large airfield, was the seat of the administrative headquarters of the Morobe goldfields. It has a lovely situation at 3,000 ft above sea level at the southern end of the Bulolo Valley, on the flank of Kuper Range which rises

steeply to the north. The airfield has a landing ground 1,100 yards long with the upper end inclined 300 ft. Several trails (named after gold mines) radiate from Wau, of which two leading to Salamaua via Mubo are in general use—the shorter is 34 miles long, but it should be noted that the only accurate measurement of these trails is by track hours. By air the distance between Wau and Salamaua is 26 miles.

This important inland airfield remained in Australian hands as a potential base from which to recover the coastal area. It was defended in the early Defence of days of the Japanese Wau Airfield invasion by the New Guinea Volunteer Rifles (formed of resident miners and colonists of the Mandated Territory). This small force was augmented by Australian Independent Companies (Commandos) and was then known as the Kanga Force. Vigilant patrols were maintained in surrounding districts, for the Allies realized that a strong force of Japanese



AUSTRALIAN COMMANDER

Brigadier S. G. Savage, DSO, MC, ED, commanded the Third Australian Division in New Guinea subsequent to April 23, 1943, and planned the campaign which gradually drove the Japanese from their outposts in the Salamaua area in the spring of that year.

Lae on the Huon Gulf in Mandated Territory, and also controlled the Vitiaz Strait between the mainland of New Guinea and New Britain. The second stage in the campaign, which continued throughout most of 1943, had as its object the elimination of the enemy from this area.

Outside their main bases the Japanese had many strongly held local positions. Owing to the nature of the country, forest alternating with swamp, such posts on mountains difficult of access and on densely wooded hills were seldom vulnerable to air attack. Their supply lines were equally difficult

WAU AIRSTRIP FROM THE AIR

This view of Wau airstrip, taken during the Japanese attempt to capture it in January 1943, clearly shows the unusual nature of this valuable landing-ground. The upper end of the 1,100-yard strip is some 300 feet higher than the lower. It was one of the chief bases for the Allied advance towards Salamaua and Lae, and was the scene of one of the decisive battles of the campaign, described above.

Photo Australian Official





GUNS BY AIR SAVED WAU AIRFIELD

The Australian troops guarding Wau airfield were at a minimum when the Japanese launched a strong attack on January 30, 1943. But the arrival by air of 25-pounder guns of the 2/1st Australian Field Regiment turned the scale. 1. Men of the 17th Australian Brigade leaving their transport planes on Wau airfield: they went straight into action against the Japanese, who were within rifle shot. 2. Under snipers' fire, gunners assembled their 25-pounders, just unloaded from the transport planes. 3. A 25-pounder in action at Wau. 4. Refreshment for the gunners after the repulse of the Japanese. *Photos, Australian Official*





GUNFIRE FROM WAU'S DEFENDERS

Shells from Allied 25-pounders bursting among Japanese positions a stone's throw from the airfield at Wau. Below, Captain W. Sherlock, who commanded 'A' company, 2/6 Battalion, in their heroic defence of Wandumi ridge, which held up the Japanese attack just long enough to allow reinforcements to reach Wau by air from Port Moresby. Those reinforcements turned the scale. Capt. Sherlock and many of his men were killed. *Photos, Australian Official*

was based on Mubo and sooner or later an attack on Wau might be expected from that direction.

The Japanese outpost of Mubo, 16 miles from Salamaua, was twice raided from Wau at the end of 1942, and again in January 1943 a severe raid was carried out. This was after Japanese assault troops had been landed at Lae, despite the destruction of most of their barges by the Allied air force. It became evident that an attack on Wau was imminent, so the Kanga Force was reinforced from Port Moresby by an Australian infantry brigade, and Brigadier M. J. Moten took over the command. Further reinforcements were detailed, but their arrival was delayed.

Meanwhile, the Japanese attacked in force by a route from Mubo which had fallen into disuse. Although that manoeuvre enabled them to advance to the Wandumi area near Bulolo River before they were detected, this initial advantage was nullified by their having to reopen overgrown parts of the track. The delay thus caused proved of immense importance to the Wau garrison. On January 27 a patrol force under Captain Sherlock (part of 'A' Co., 2/6



the wet and misty night of January 28-29, one strong enemy group came within half a mile of the airfield, but was exterminated. Early in the morning the weather, which had held up reinforcements at Port Moresby, suddenly cleared: at 9 a.m. the drone of aero-engines was heard, and transport planes made a perfect landing. More troops of the A.I.F. disembarked and went straight into the battle; 57 landings were made that day. Next morning troops of an Australian field regiment were flown in with 25-pounder guns. These, assembled under continual sniper fire as fast as they were unloaded, went into action immediately, and, aided

(attn.) made the first contact with the Japanese advance troops, and gallantly held them for 48 hours until a relief party arrived. A delaying action was then fought farther up the river with Maj. Muir (Brigade) and Maj. Duffy (2/5 Battn.) in command, until an enemy force of many hundreds succeeded in infiltrating the deep valley of Wau. During

by Beaufighters manned by Australians, began systematically to blast the Japanese off the surrounding ridges.

The enemy lost very heavily, few returning to the coast. Captured orders revealed that the attacks on Wau had been planned to take place on the 27th instead of the 30th January. Wau had certainly been saved by the delaying actions fought by small Australian forces, particularly that under Captain Sherlock, who, unfortunately, was killed.

Far from being discouraged by their defeats at Buna and Wau, the Japanese persisted in their offensive strategy, and now redoubled their efforts to increase their hold on New Guinea. **Japanese Continue their Offensive**

At the beginning of March a large convoy of Japanese reinforcements in the Bismarck Sea was wiped out by Allied bombers (see page 2602). Subsequently, while the Allies were clearing sites formerly occupied by Japanese on the Mambare River in Papua, they discovered preparations for a strong base with gun positions and pillboxes, a hospital, and installations for a large force. It was concluded that this had been the destination of the ill-fated convoy. On April 14 the enemy raided Milne Bay airfield in force.



THE CAMPAIGN IN NEW GUINEA

The Japanese were cleared from the Papua area of New Guinea by January 16, 1943, and then the Allies began to advance north and west in the direction of Madang and Wewak. This map indicates the strategic importance of Vitiaz Strait and the development of the whole 1943 Allied campaign in New Guinea. This Chapter describes that part of it which took place in the area shown enclosed in a rectangle, an enlarged map of which is opposite.

The Allies did not relax their air attacks on all vulnerable points, convoys and troop concentrations, and airfields, not only in all parts of occupied New Guinea but in the Netherlands Indies as well. Estimated Japanese losses for 12 months up to April 1943 showed very serious shipping losses, and 3,000 aircraft destroyed, which was the annual total produced by Japanese factories. Yet greater Allied strength was needed both for reconnaissance and to deal more vigorous blows at the enemy. General MacArthur, C-in-C., S.W. Pacific, issued grave warnings that the enemy had great forces assembled within striking distance of Australia, that so long as the Japanese controlled the sea

lanes to Australia the Allies could not pass over to the offensive; Allied defences ought to consist primarily of land-based air forces defended by ground troops, and these could not be established without greatly augmented supplies and especially an amphibious force. He declared that the loss or winning of the battle of the South-West Pacific depended upon a proper application of the air-ground team, that if the Allies lost command of the air, no naval forces could save them, and that the

Allied aircraft available were barely adequate for defence purposes and quite insufficient for taking the offensive.

Mr. Forde and Dr. H. Evatt, Minister of the Army and Minister of External Affairs respectively in the Australian Government, added their voices to his. General Sir Thomas Blamey, touring operational bases in North Australia, warned troops to be on their guard against sudden Japanese attack; and stated that in his opinion even five per cent of American and British output of war material made effective in the South-West Pacific would give the Allies victory in that area. At the end of April Maj.-Gen. George Kenney (C-in-C. Allied Air Forces in S.W. Pacific) and Maj.-Gen. R. Sutherland went on a special mission to the United States to ask for increased support.

During the following months the Japanese were gradually driven from their outposts in the Salamaua area by Australian ground forces

operating from Wau, under the command of Brigadier Savage, who planned this part of the campaign. Salamaua town occupies an area on the isthmus of Salamaua Peninsula and extends south-east on to the mainland. It is the port of the Bulolo goldfields, and before the Japanese invasion there were daily air and motor-boat services to and from Lae. North of the town, between the Peninsula and Kela Point, is a sheltered inlet, Samoa (formerly Salamaua) Harbour (see map opposite). On the mainland are forested hills, the sharp spurs and hogbacks of which the enemy had utilized to form outer defence works for the town and harbour. Covered with *kunai* grass or high forest, these blind positions could not well be seen from the air. It was the task of the

ADVANCE ON MUBO AND SALAMAU

Left, manhandling a piece of artillery across a creek near Nassau Bay, where American forces landed on June 30, 1943, despite strong opposition. Australian troops from the interior contacted them on July 2, and the combined force advanced on Mubo, which they captured on the 15th. Right, Australians and Americans who fought from Nassau Bay to Mubo gaze at Salamaua, still to be conquered.

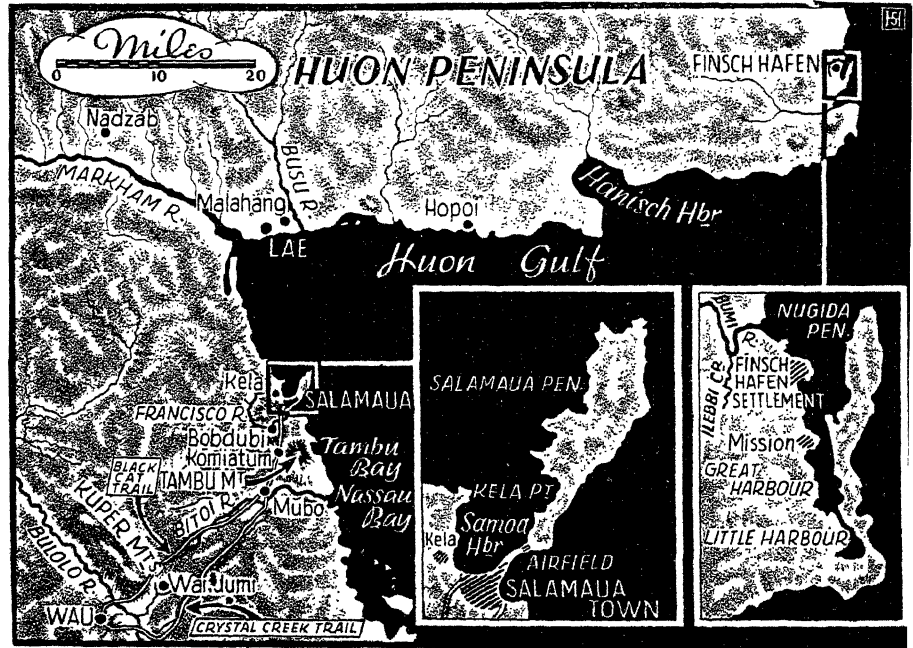
Photos, Sport & General



Australian artillery and commando troops to win one position after another, often with bitter fighting, and to clear the ground of foxholes, pillboxes and traps until they commanded the entire area. The strain of such bush warfare in this nerve-racking country is intense. Brigadier Savage later described the conditions as the most difficult of any experienced in New Guinea, not excepting those of the Owen Stanley Range. Transport problems were solved by a system of supply by air and, so that the men should not be overtaxed, front line troops were sent back periodically for 48 hours' rest in special camps.

On May 9 the Allies occupied Bobdubi village, on Francisco River near Salamaua, captured the ridge above and held it successfully against counter-

attacks. Bobdubi Ridge controls the main trail to Salamaua where it turns south from Francisco River towards Komiatum. On June 30, U.S. troops landed in Nassau Bay, 11 miles south of Salamaua. They encountered strong opposition but consolidated their position after inflicting heavy casualties on the enemy. They also occupied Trobriand and Woodlark Islands, between New Guinea and the Solomons, without opposition. A few days later General MacArthur arrived in New Guinea to direct operations in person. Mubo, overlooking the harbour of Salamaua, was surrounded and occupied by Australian and U.S. troops, in spite of strong resistance, on July 15. One force was then sent eastward to meet American units advancing up the coast from Nassau Bay. On 16th-18th a severe battle for Tambu Mt. took place, a small force of the A.I.F. dislodging 1,000 entrenched Japanese,



THE BATTLES OF HUON GULF

This map shows the tricky mountainous country in which the campaign of Huon Gulf was fought. Added to the difficulties that can be deduced from the map were others which a map cannot indicate—the tropical climate, with its inevitable accompaniment of insect pests, and alternating dense forest and swamp crossed by only the most primitive tracks.

Specially drawn for THE SECOND GREAT WAR by Harrop

killing something like a half of them. The enemy light artillery was markedly inefficient, and the battle ended in a rout, the Japanese abandoning much equipment and even throwing away their rifles. By August 9 the Australians had captured Kela Ridge (1,200 ft. above Salamaua airfield).

The Allied attack on Lae, the largest amphibious operation carried out up to this time in the South-West Pacific, began at dawn on September 4 with a naval bombardment by American warships. Under cover of a smoke-screen and protected by warships, troops of the Australian Field Division (veterans

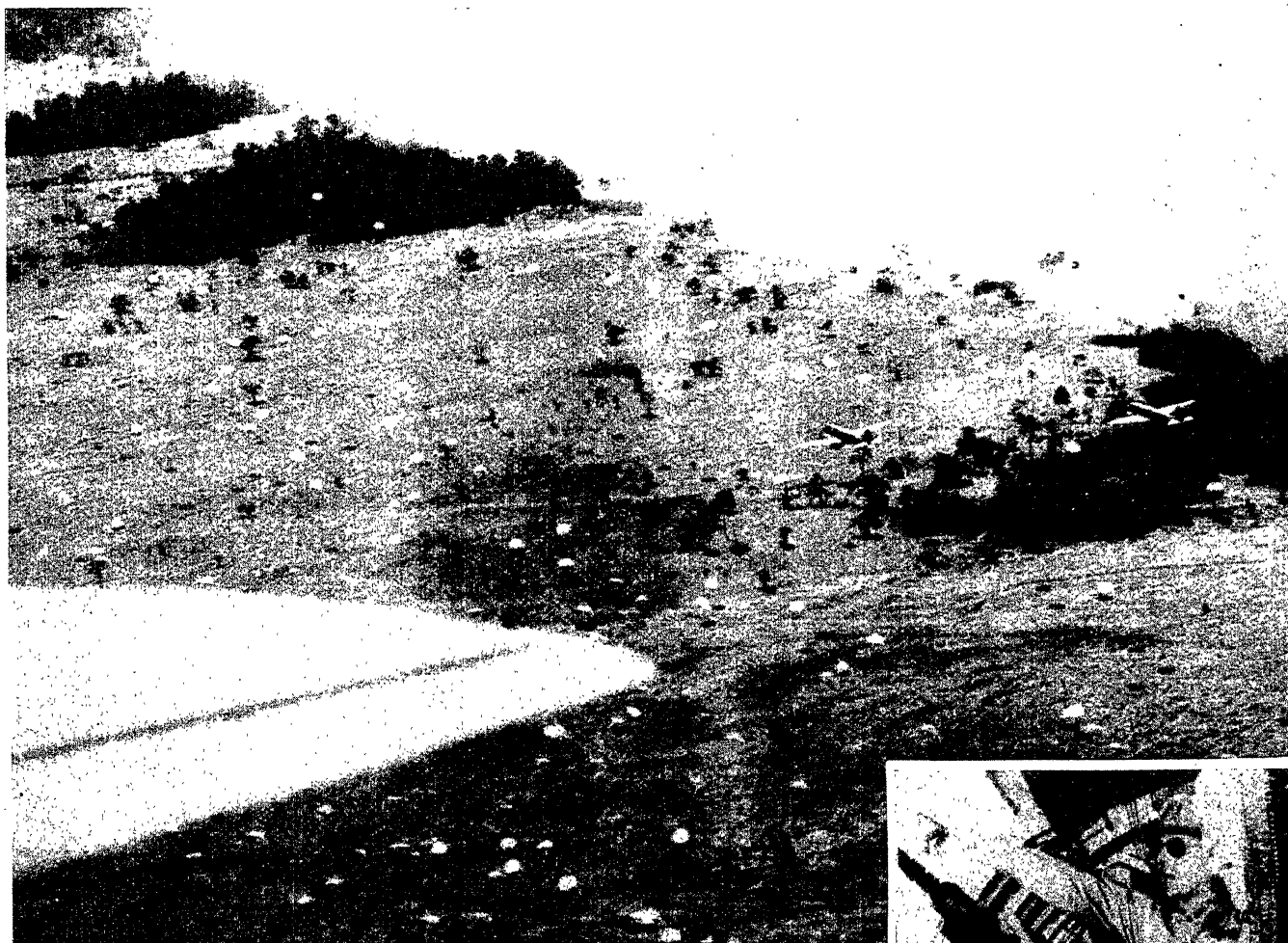
of the Middle East fighting) were landed in large American transport barges at Hopoi on the coast east of Lae, while Australian and U.S. pilots maintained absolute air supremacy. Within three-quarters of an hour full equipment was on shore with the troops—jeeps and bulldozers, caterpillar tractors, anti-aircraft guns, and heavy artillery. On the first day an advance of eight to ten miles was made. The Commander-in-Chief directed operations from a destroyer; with him were General Sir Thomas Blamey, commanding ground forces, Maj.-Gen. George Kenney (U.S. air force), and Admiral A. S. Carpender (U.S. Commander of Naval Operations). The Australian artillery was under the command of Lt. John N. Pearson, aged 22 years. The enemy was quite unprepared. By the time the Japanese

FIERCE FIGHTING FOR MOUNT TAMBU

Left, an American and an Australian at a heavy machine-gun post 60 yards from Japanese positions on Mt. Tambu. Right, one of the guns of an American battery firing at targets on Mt. Tambu and the Komiatum track. These guns were carried in parts of 100 to 250 lb. weight each over the precipitous Lobahia ridge from Nassau Bay, the gradient frequently being almost 1 in 1.

Photos, Paul Popper; Sport & General





DESCENT ON THE MARKHAM VALLEY

A rain of American parachutists—the first to go into action in the Pacific area—dropped on September 5, 1943, in the Markham Valley, west of Lae, to prevent the escape of the 20,000 Japanese troops there from the Australians landed east of the town. The smoke screen in the background conceals the manoeuvre from the Japanese across the river. Right, General MacArthur, watches the hazardous operation from an American bomber. (See also illus., p. 2665.)

batteries at Lae opened fire, the first barges had landed troops and were returning empty. The batteries were soon silenced by the naval guns.

Next day U.S. parachute troops were dropped in the Markham Valley, on the left river bank. After leaving the high mountain chain where it has its source, Markham River flows for the greater part of its course through a wide plain with large mangrove swamps. The banks are low and muddy, and the bed impeded by mud islets covered in mangroves. But beyond the mouth the valley widens out into a fertile plain which has been under cultivation by Lutheran missionaries, who also constructed many air strips there and in the upper valley. The U.S. parachute troops cut off Japanese forces higher up the valley, seized the western approaches to Lae, and joined up with Australian forces who had marched 55 miles through the jungle in five days.

On September 6 other U.S. parachute troops, dropped near Lae,

approached the Busu River, which flows into the Gulf of Huon four miles east of Lae; while troops of the A.I.F., fighting through dense jungle country, captured Nadzab, a Japanese air base 20 miles west of Lae.

During the attack on an enemy position at Nadzab, on the morning of September 13, Private Richard Kelliher won the thirteenth Victoria Cross awarded to Australians in the war.

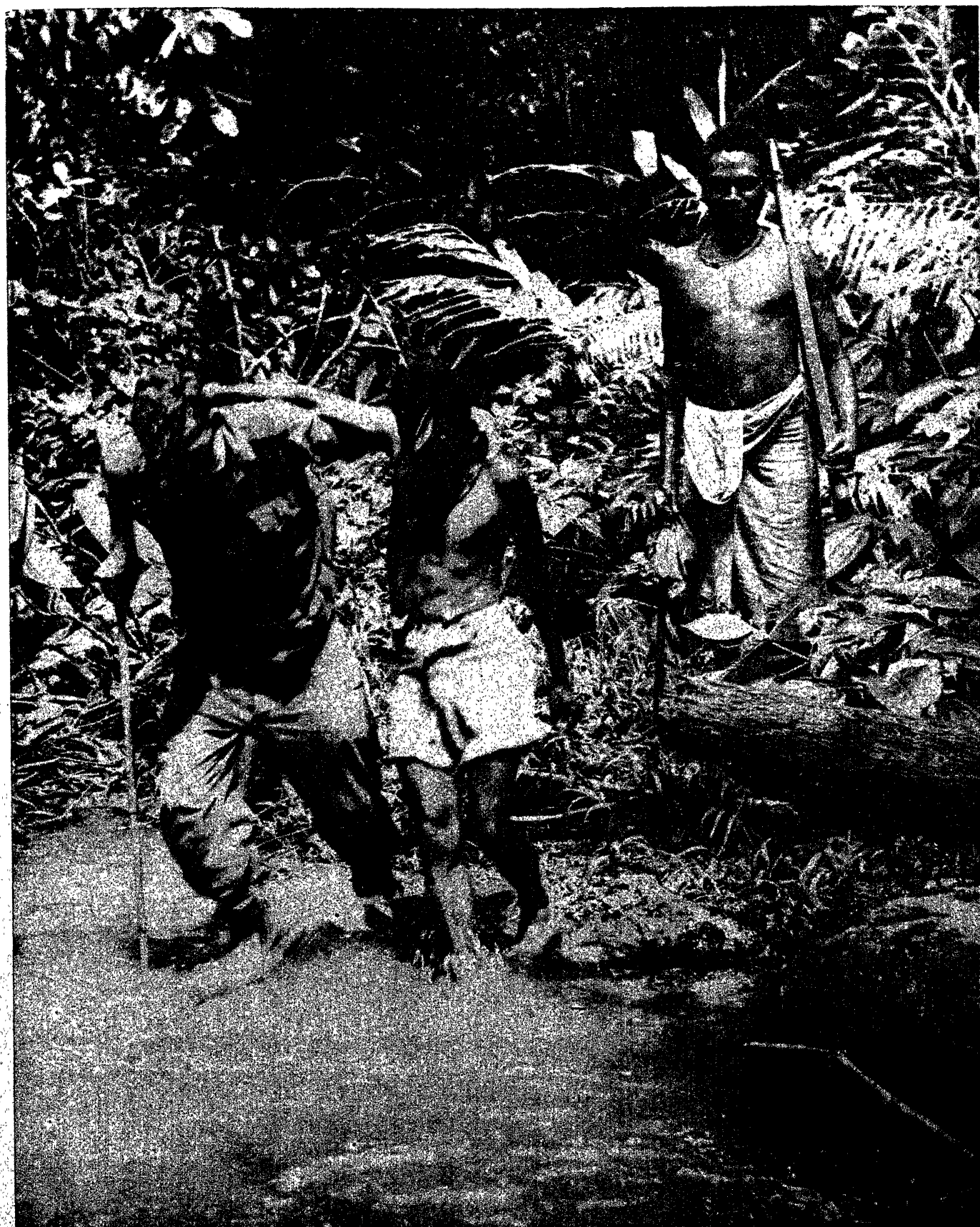
His platoon came under heavy fire from a concealed enemy machine-gun post 50 yards away. Five of them were killed and three wounded, and it was found impossible to advance without further losses. In the face of these casualties, Private Kelliher suddenly, on his own initiative and without orders, dashed towards the post and hurled two grenades at it, killing some of the enemy, but not all. Noting this, he then returned to his section, seized a Bren gun, again dashed forward to within 30 yards of the post, and with accurate fire completely silenced it.

Returning from his already gallant action, Private Kelliher next requested permission to go forward and rescue his wounded section leader. This he successfully accom-



plished, though under heavy rifle fire from another position. Private Kelliher, by these actions, acted as an inspiration to everyone in his platoon, and not only enabled the advance to continue but also saved his section leader's life. His most conspicuous bravery and extreme devotion to duty in the face of heavy enemy fire resulted in the capture of this strong enemy position.

From Nadzab strong reinforcements of the A.I.F. flown in by transport plane, fanned out towards Lae. On September 10 the Allies made a successful crossing of the Busu by boat and pontoon bridge. Japanese resistance in the Lae-Salamaua district was local, their forces not being concentrated. Large areas of *kunai* grass were



THE BROTHERHOOD OF MAN

War produced no more striking example of man's brotherhood than that which developed between Australian troops and the frizzy-haired natives of New Guinea. Here, a native helps an Australian wounded in the fierce fighting for Mt. Tambu in mid-July 1943. Mt. Tambu, six miles from Salamaua, had been turned into a strong network of defenses by the enemy. A handful of Australians captured it, killing some 500 out of 1,000 Japanese, and held it for three days and nights against 17 determined counter-attacks until the arrival of fresh Allied troops.

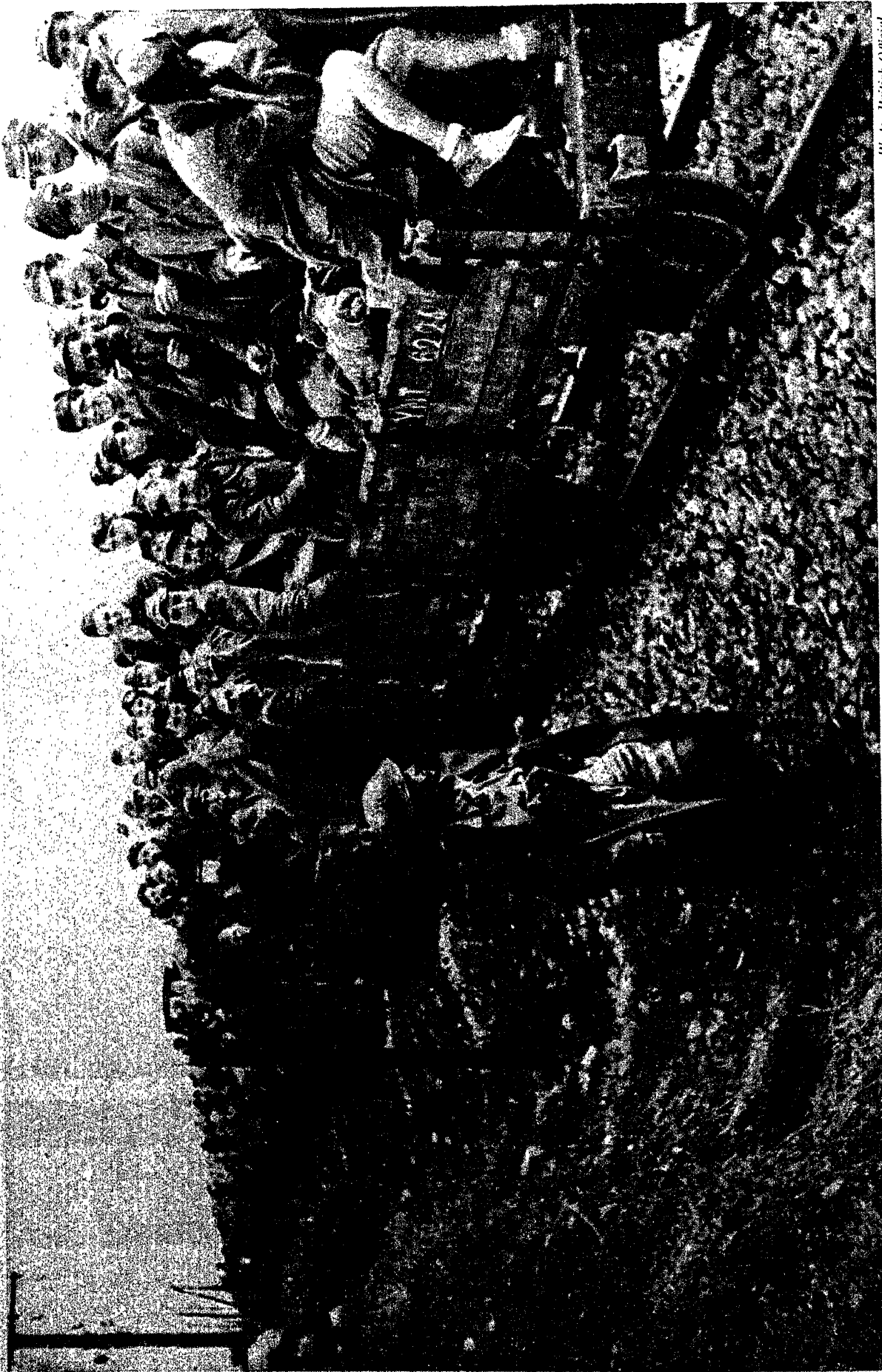




VICTORY PARADE IN TUNIS

Pipers of the 51st Highland Division—part of that great Eighth Army which, under Montgomery's leadership, had helped so mightily to hit Rommel "for six" right out of Africa—in the Victory Parade through Tunis on May 20, 1943. All the Allied commanders were present, and Generals Eisenhower, Alexander, Anderson and Giraud took the salute at the march past. Mr. Macmillan, British Minister, and Mr. Murphy, U.S. Minister, represented civil affairs.

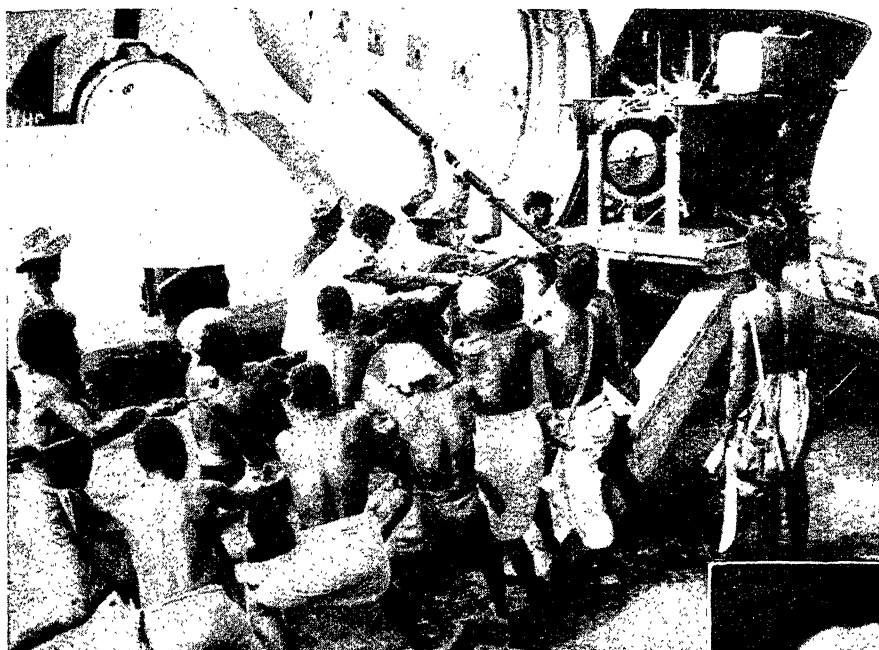
Photo, British Official



Photo, British Official

TRAINLOAD OF HAPPY ITALIAN PRISONERS

Some of the 252,300 Axis prisoners taken in Tunisia entrained for Tunis on their way to a more permanent camp from temporary compounds at Grombala. The total Axis casualties from November 8, 1942, when the Allied landings in French North Africa began, until the clearing of all enemy forces from North Africa were about 390,000, more than half of them Germans. Total enemy losses in N. and E. Africa (killed, wounded, prisoners) were not far short of a million. The Germans remained resentful of capture; the Italians for the most part were pleased to be out of the fighting.



SUPPLIES CAME IN TO NADZAB BY AIR

Equipment for the drive on Lae being unloaded at Nadzab by black men and white working shoulder to shoulder after the capture of this airfield by Australian troops who fought through the jungle to reach it. The story of how Private Richard Kelliher (right) won the V.C. at Nadzab is told in page 2758: he was photographed while convalescing from malaria. Born in Ballybeggan, Co. Kerry, he migrated to Australia in 1929.

Photo, Sport & General



combed for the enemy, but none was found, though some sharp fighting took place as outposts were disclosed. The main routes by which the Japanese could withdraw from their bases were covered, and some who escaped in small parties to the surrounding hills were rounded up later, the force in the upper valley of the Markham being taken prisoner.

An Australian militia unit swam the flooded Francisco River to capture Salamaua airfield on September 13. Salamaua itself, almost destroyed by

Fall of Salamaua and Lae Allied bombing was taken next day. The enemy fled into the jungle, abandoning hundreds of dead and much equipment, including artillery. Lae fell two days later, the Japanese fleeing as at Salamaua. No escape by sea had been possible as the American navy and Allied air force had entire command of the Gulf of Huon. There was no sign of enemy naval activity during this period, although it had been expected that barges would attempt to slip along the coast at night to rescue remnants of the scattered Japanese forces.

The Allies had now won three good airfields from which to attack the Japanese positions farther up the coast: the large airfield of Lae, that of Malahang, less than two miles away, and Hopoi airfield, 25 miles east of Lae.

In a short time these were made serviceable.

The next blow



BOMB-RAVAGED SALAMAUA

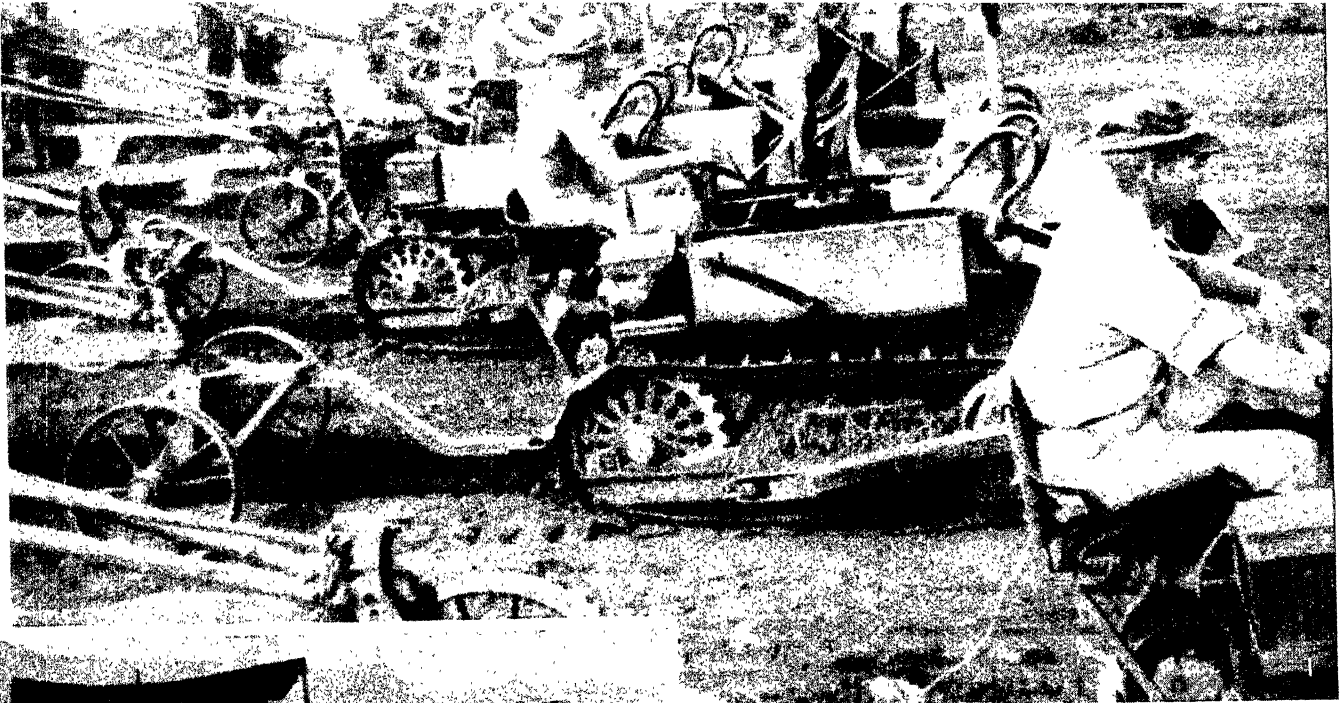
Allied bombing devastated the Salamaua peninsula. The truck depot, boat landings and main Japanese headquarters were completely destroyed. It was captured on September 14, 1943, when the enemy fled into the jungle abandoning hundreds of their dead and much equipment, including artillery. Lae, the only remaining strong Japanese base in the area, was taken two days later.

Photo, Planet News

was struck at Finsch Hafen, on the south-east coast of Huon Peninsula, where two amphibious landings were made on September 22, the first, six miles north of Finsch Hafen, the second, 32 miles (by water) to the south-west at Hanisch Harbour. (See map, page 2757.)

The harbour of Finsch Hafen lies between the mainland and the Nugida Peninsula, which is about six miles long and one mile across at the widest part. The airfield is farther north on the left bank of Bumi River. The coasts are mainly densely wooded, rocky cliffs; there are few beaches favourable for landing operations. Inland are series of low hills with patches of high forest, thickets of bamboo and *kunai* grass. The whole area had been leased to the Lutheran Mission since the time when the Territory was a German Protectorate. Coconut has been planted on a large scale. Good roads of coral rock intersect the plantations and follow the coast to the jetty, and these were of considerable advantage to the Allies.

The terrain, moreover, did not present so many engineering problems as that of the Lae landings; but it made very



ASSAULT ON LAE

The Allied attack on Lae began at dawn on September 4, 1943, with the landing of forces and full equipment at Hopoi, an operation at which the Australian Boomerang fighter plane, a high-altitude interceptor, went into action for the first time. The landing was followed by the dropping of parachute troops inland. Lae fell on the 16th. 1. Bulldozers manned by Allied soldiers break a way for an assault on Lae; artillery followed. 2. Blood for transfusion to the wounded being brought ashore from a landing barge by natives. 3. The waterfront at Lae after attention from American bombers and Australian artillery. 4. Australian troops march into Lae through country devastated by land and air bombardment. Photos, Associated Press; Planet News; New York Times. Photos, Keystone



MATILDA TANKS IN THE FINSCH HAFEN AREA

Arrival of a Matilda tank to support the Australian Imperial Forces in their struggle against the Japanese at Finsch Hafen. Below, a group of Matildas carries out manoeuvres preparatory to going into action to familiarize the drivers with the kind of country in which they had to fight.



exacting demands upon the fighting troops.

Australian infantry belonging to the Ninth Division of El Alamein fame were landed at dawn and at once engaged by Japanese marines. A sharp fight followed but the enemy was routed by bayonet charges, and retired to a prepared position in a mission plantation south of Bumi River. The Allied beach-head was held in spite of counter-attacks. While some troops kept the enemy engaged at the river mouth, part of the force was deployed to cross higher up, thereby gaining high ground overlooking Finsch Hafen. The airfield was captured by September 24. Two days later the Australians had crossed

the Bumi and some troops were east of Ilebby Creek and half a mile from Finsch Hafen. In the meantime, the southern force had advanced up the coast from Hanisch Harbour and the Japanese garrison and marines found themselves trapped. Small parties fled into the surrounding bush, but their efforts to reach the shore were frustrated and after 11 days' stubborn fighting the Finsch Hafen area was cleared.

Allied artillery again proved superior to that of the Japanese. Concentrated fire from 25-pounder guns demolished the bunkers and pillboxes which made up the Japanese defences, and the attacks from the rear of their positions had a speedy demoralizing effect, but

without the amphibious force and airborne landings this thorough uprooting of the Japanese from their strongly fortified positions would have been impossible in that time.

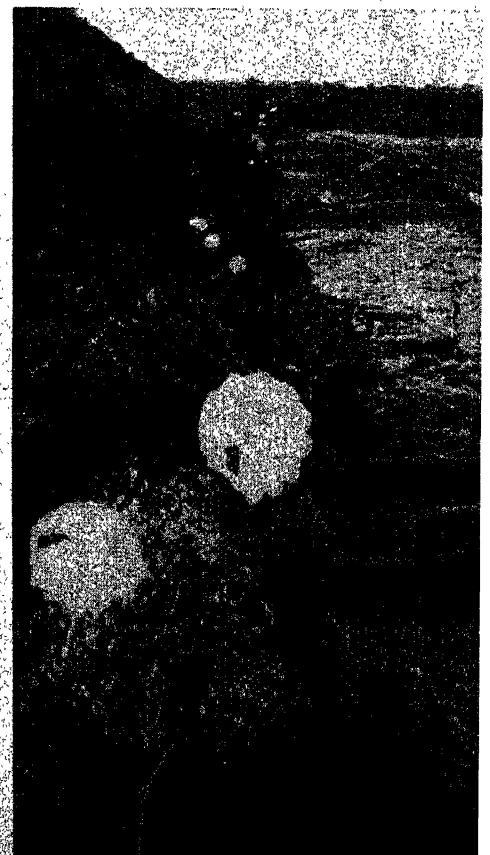
Reasons for Allied Success

As at Lae, American bulldozers and jeeps played an important part. American engineers disembarked with the first troops to prepare tracks laid with wire mesh for the heavy landing craft which were navigated and manned by Americans. American transport planes were also used throughout. After the landing operations Australian engineers and pioneer troops took over the responsibility of all further communications inland, making subsidiary roads and bridges.

The offensive had developed according to plan, and the Allies now commanded the Huon Gulf and the Vitiav Strait. They had forced the enemy to abandon that part of his strategy which had depended upon this area, and his defence system based on Rabaul had been breached. The Allies were in a position to concentrate upon their main objective: the re-occupation of the important island of New Britain.

BOMBS ON WEWAK

Parachute bombs falling among heavily camouflaged Japanese planes during an Allied raid in the Wewak area. The campaign in New Guinea was the first time these bombs were used extensively: they kept Japanese troops and pack trains off the trails, frequently preventing the enemy from procuring supplies of food and water.



THE AXIS 'HIT FOR SIX' OUT OF AFRICA

The advance of the Eighth Army to Wadi Akarit was covered in Chapter 265; the operations of the First Army with the U.S. forces up to the battle for the Kasserine Pass were described in Chapter 264. In this Chapter Mr. A. D. Divine brings the North African campaigns to their climax with the junction of the Allied armies from east and west and their final successful assault on Tunis

FIFTEEN miles to the eastward of El Guetar, beyond the bloody strong-point of "Hot Corner," a patrol of the Eighth Army, racing northward, met on April 7, 1943, the reconnaissance of the American Second Corps thrusting down the dusty Gabes road towards the sea. The junction of the armies of the east and west, so long and so ardently desired, was accomplished.

This was the physical junction. There had been contact before up through the desert backways by Tozeur, but this was the strategic reunion. It was the outward and visible sign of what had already taken place in the command. Mr. Churchill had announced on February 11 in the House of Commons that the allied command

had been re-arranged. Eisenhower, at Algiers, remained generalissimo of the whole theatre of operations. Sir Harold Alexander, coming past the Eighth Army by air, took over the fighting command with absolute authority over the British First Army, the Americans, the French, and the Eighth. With him came Air Chief Marshal Tedder to direct all air operations, with Air Vice-Marshal Coningham as his deputy. Admiral of the Fleet Sir Andrew Cunningham remained as Commander-in-Chief of naval operations. The combined forces were to be known as the 18th Army Group.

There was an apparent simplification of the general problem. The speed of the lightning Axis retreat across the Tunisian plain meant that in a very

short and foreseeable time General Alexander would have to fight on one front only. It was obvious now that the Axis commanders had decided upon holding what came to be known as "the Tunis box." This was an area which began at Enfidaville on the coast of the Gulf of Hammamet and ran in a demilune roughly through Pont du Fahs, Medjez-el-Bab, the hills beyond Beja and Sedjenane (see map, page 2772).

It was not what the enemy had hoped to hold. In the south the line was determined automatically by the hills of the Zaghouan massif. That was as planned. It is probable that the Axis holdings beyond Pont du Fahs in the eastern dorsale were considered sufficient for their purpose, but it was in the centre of the line that their greatest weakness was apparent; and it was this centre that had been so gallantly captured by the thin force of the First Army in the initial rush for Tunis; it was this area that had been so gallantly held

**Weakness
of Enemy
Centre**

ANGLO-AMERICAN MEETING IN TUNISIA

On April 7, 1943, at a point 15 miles east of El Guetar, a patrol of the British Eighth Army, racing northward, met reconnaissance units of the U.S. Second Corps of the First Army advancing towards Gabes. Here is the scene as the two forces clambered from their vehicles and ran joyfully towards one another to celebrate this first contact between the men who had come through from El Alamein and those who had made the landings in French North Africa.

Photo, British Newsreels



by them through the bitter reverses and the intolerable weather of the Tunisian winter.

It is within the bounds of possibility that the gallantry of the 155th Field Battery at Sidi Nsir and the heroic defence of Hunt's Gap were the determining factors in the swiftness of the collapse of the "Tunis box" (see page 2624). Beyond that, to the north again, Sedjenane, captured by Colonel Witzig and his parachute troops, probably represented the limits of enemy ambition. The Axis forces, in the thrust that ended at Hunt's Gap, had hoped to drive the Allies back to and beyond Beja. If the Allies had had to launch the attack on Tunis from the valley of the Kroumirie, it might have cost six months and 50,000 men.

By April 13 the scurry—it can scarcely be called a campaign—of South Tunisia was over. But before it ended there

End of South Tunisia Campaign

took place one of the most remarkable assaults in all that history of battle. As the enemy streamed north up the coast road through Sousse and the inner road through Kairouan, the Allies made a desperate last attempt to cut them off. Pichon was overwhelmed, but beyond Pichon lay the little Fondouk Pass, heavily covered by mines and strongly held by the enemy. To cut off Messe it was necessary to smash a way through. To smash a way through, the hills on either side had first to be captured. The Welsh Guards captured the northern hill; an American attack on the southern hill failed. The one essential was time. Regardless of loss, the tanks of the Sixth Armoured



THE 'DESERT RATS'

Sign of the veteran Desert Rats, a British motorized brigade that won fame by its unequalled exploits in desert warfare. It included at different times the Rifle Brigade, K.R.R.C., R.H.A., R.A.S.C., R.E., R.A.M.C., Light A.A., 11th Hussars, K.D.G.s and S.A.A.C., and armoured car regiments co-operated with it.



ARMOUR OF THE EIGHTH MEETS THE FIRST

Here is the crew of an Eighth Army armoured car greeting men of the First Army when the two armies joined up on April 11, 1943, some 20 miles from Fondouk, between Kairouan and Sbiba. Below, troops of the French forces from the Chad, commanded by General Jacques Philippe LeClerc, which entered Tunisia with the Eighth Army, drive through Kairouan, holy city of North African Muslims, on April 12, 1943, the day after it fell to patrols of the First Army.



Division were ordered to smash their way across the minefield. Thirty Sherman tanks were lost in clearing the passage, but a gap was made and through it the rest of the armour streamed. The delay, however, had been fatal—the Allies were too late at Kairouan, though on April 10, 18 out of 30 German tanks were knocked out outside the city. At 11.50 on April 11 a battalion of the 12th Lancers met scout cars of the Derbyshire Yeomanry south of Kairouan, and the British armies were joined. But Messe had reached the mountain "box" of North Tunisia, and effected the junction with the forces under Von

Arnim, who now assumed command of all Axis forces in Africa.

At once General Alexander began to regroup his armies for the final victory. The Americans in the south had now no enemy to face. In a masterly lateral movement, masterfully handled, he swung them across the rear of the First Army to the north. With them he placed a formerly dissident French group, the Corps d'Afrique, composed of Spanish refugees, adventurers of all sorts, and De Gaullists, strengthened with Moroccan Goum. The junction with the First Army was in the initial stages approximately at Beja. From there the First



Lt.-Col. H. R. B. FOOTE
(Royal Tank Regiment)

He was awarded the V.C. for outstanding courage and leadership during the Libyan retreat in May-June, 1942 (see Chapter 224). By his initiative on June 6 he prevented the encirclement of two Allied divisions, and on June 13 delayed enemy tanks while the Guards Brigade was withdrawn from Knightsbridge.



Maj. J. R. M. ANDERSON
(Argyll and Sutherlands)

He reorganized his unit in the assault on Longstop, April 23, 1943, after the battalion commander had been killed and all other company commanders were among the heavy casualties. With only four other officers and less than 40 other ranks left, he captured the ridge. He was awarded the V.C.



Lt. W. A. S. CLARKE
(Loyal Regiment)

He received the V.C. for conspicuous gallantry in the attack on Guiriat El Atach, April 23, 1943. Wounded and the sole remaining officer of his company, he gathered a platoon and under cover of their fire silenced three machine-gun posts single-handed. He was killed advancing again to clear two sniper-posts.

to a desperate thing of Sebel ferries and fast mosquito craft.

The enemy took to the air—or, rather, they trebled their effort in the air—to make good the deficiencies of the sea. And in the air they were broken utterly. Mareth had begun the last phase of the collapse of the Luftwaffe in Africa.

**Axis Utterly
Broken
in the Air**

The progression was swift, bloody and disastrous. In a little the Axis planes were beaten almost out of the sky. Men in the fighting areas scarcely looked up when aircraft passed overhead. Men in transport on the roads hardly bothered to scan the air.

On April 5, over 200 enemy aircraft were destroyed, some fifty of them (including 18 Ju-52 transports) in the air. On April 18, 58 Dornier transport aircraft, carrying petrol and reinforcements of men, were shot down. On this and the next day 95 enemy aircraft were destroyed. On April 24 a strongly escorted group of 20 of the six-engined power gliders approaching the coast were pounced on by South African aircraft of the Western Desert Air Force and blotted out of the sky, together with 10 of their escorting fighters.

The navy had made the night passage of the Sicilian Narrows very near to suicide. The air, combining with the older Service, made the daylight run impossible. The Axis was ringed. Reinforcement was virtually at an end. Escape was virtually denied. The stage was set for disaster.

Army held the line eastward until the French took over from them on the eastern dorsale. The Eighth Army took on from the French a little to the west of Djebibina.

General Alexander's plan was to make his major thrust in the centre along one of the two major avenues—the Medjez-Tunis or the Pont du Fahs-Tunis road—and General Anderson and the First Army were entrusted with the assault. The function of the Eighth Army was to hold, both by small-scale attacks and by the weight of its prestige, the greatest possible concentration of German troops in the south. The armour of the Eighth Army was to be swung up to the Bou Arada area to reinforce the Sixth Armoured Division.

This was the landward ring. There were others. The Axis armies of Africa were beleaguered. On the sea the navy was completing the superb work it had begun in the first days of the movement of the invasion armies. Between Cape Blanc and Marittimo, destroyers of the "L" class maintained an almost nightly patrol reinforced, when necessary, by the cruisers of Force Q. In the shallow water the inshore squadrons became with every day of the succeeding weeks more daring. From patrols that took them as far as Cape Blanc and the approaches to Bizerta on the north and to Cape Bon on the eastern coast, they passed to impudent raids in the Gulf of Tunis itself. Seaborne supply was cut down

BRITISH REGIMENTS WHICH FOUGHT IN TUNISIA: Nov. 1942—May 1943.

First Army

Argyll and Sutherland Highlanders.
Bedfordshire and Hertfordshire Regiment.
Black Watch.
Coldstream Guards.
Derbyshire Yeomanry.
Duke of Cornwall's Light Infantry.
Duke of Wellington's Regiment (West Riding).
Durham Light Infantry.
East Surrey Regiment.
Gordon Highlanders.
Grenadier Guards.
Hampshire Regiment.
10th Hussars.
Irish Guards.
King's Own Yorkshire Light Infantry.
King's Royal Rifle Corps.
King's Shropshire Light Infantry.
Lancashire Fusiliers.
16th Lancers.
17th Lancers.
Leicestershire Regiment.
Lincolnshire Regiment.
London Irish Rifles (18th London Regiment).
Lothian and Border Yeomanry.
Loyal Regiment (North Lancashire).

Northamptonshire Regiment.
North Irish Horse.
North Staffordshire Regiment.
Queen's Bays (2nd Dragoon Guards).
Queen's Own Royal West Kents.
9th Queen's Royal Lancers.
Rifle Brigade.
Royal East Kent Regiment (Bufs).
Royal Fusiliers (City of London Regiment).
Royal Inniskilling Fusiliers.
Royal Irish Fusiliers.
Scots Guards.
Sherwood Foresters (Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire Regiment).
Welsh Guards.
York and Lancaster Regiment.
Units of Royal Armoured Corps.
Units of Royal Tank Regiment.
All ancillary arms.

Eighth Army

Argyll and Sutherland Highlanders.
Black Watch.
Cameron Highlanders.
Cheshire Regiment.
Coldstream Guards.
County of London Yeomanry.
Durham Light Infantry.
East Yorkshire Regiment.

Essex Regiment.
Gordon Highlanders.
Green Howards (Alexandra, Princess of Wales's Own Yorkshire Regiment).
Grenadier Guards.
11th Hussars.
1st King's Dragoon Guards.
King's Royal Rifle Corps.
Middlesex Regiment.
Nottinghamshire Yeomanry.
Oxfordshire and Buckinghamshire Light Infantry.
Queen's Royal Regiment (West Surrey).
Rifle Brigade.
1st Royal Dragoons.
Royal East Kent Regiment (Bufs).
Royal Fusiliers (City of London Regiment).
12th Royal Lancers.
Royal Northumberland Fusiliers.
Royal Sussex Regiment.
Scots Guards.
Seaforth Highlanders.
Staffordshire Yeomanry.
Units of Royal Armoured Corps.
Units of Royal Tank Regiment.
All ancillary arms.



Lce.-Cpl. J. P. KENEALLY
(Irish Guards)

Twice during the assault on the Bou, on April 28 and 30, 1943, he dashed forward single-handed with a Bren gun against a company of the enemy forming up to attack. On both occasions he broke up the attack—an achievement that can seldom have been equalled. It won him the V.C. From the painting by Henry Carr. Crown Copyright.

BRITISH FORMATIONS & COMMANDERS IN THE TUNISIAN CAMPAIGN

First Army

(Lt.-Gen. Sir K. A. N. Anderson, K.C.B., M.C.)
 5th Corps ... Lt.-Gen. C. W. Allfrey,
 C.B., D.S.O., M.C.
 1st Div. ... Maj.-Gen. W. E. Clutter-
 buck, D.S.O., M.C.
 4th Div. ... Maj.-Gen. J. L. I. Hawkes-
 worth, C.B., C.B.E.,
 D.S.O.
 78th Div. ... Maj.-Gen. V. Eveleigh, C.B.
 9th Corps ... Lt.-Gen. J. T. Crocker,
 C.B., C.B.E., D.S.O., M.C.
 1st Armd. Div. ... Maj.-Gen. R. Briggs, C.B.,
 D.S.O.
 6th Armd. Div. ... Maj.-Gen. C. F. Keightley,
 C.B., O.B.E.
 46th Div. ... Maj.-Gen. H. A. Freeman-
 Attwood, D.S.O., M.C.

Eighth Army

(General Sir B. L. Montgomery, K.C.B., D.S.O.)
 10th Corps ... Lt.-Gen. B. G. Horrocks,
 C.B., D.S.O., M.C.
 7th Armd. Div. ... Maj.-Gen. A. F. Harding,
 C.B.E., D.S.O., M.C.
 Later: Maj.-Gen. G. W. E. J.
 Erskine, C.B., D.S.O.
 2nd N.Z. Div. ... Lt.-Gen. Sir C. B. Freyberg,
 V.C., K.C.B., K.B.E.
 56th Div. ... Maj.-Gen. E. G. Miles,
 C.B., D.S.O., M.C.
 51st Highland Div. ... Maj.-Gen. D. N. Wimber-
 ley, C.B., D.S.O., M.C.
 30th Corps ... Lt.-Gen. Sir O. Leese, Bt.,
 K.C.B., C.B.E., D.S.O.
 4th Indian Div. ... Maj.-Gen. F. I. S. Tucker,
 C.B., D.S.O., O.B.E.

Note.—The 50th Div. (Maj.-Gen. J. S. Nichols,
 D.S.O., M.C.) served in Tunisia up to Enfidaville,
 being attached sometimes to one corps, sometimes
 to the other as military need dictated.

The date of the final thrust to Tunis
 is usually given as May 6. It would be
 preferable to date it as far back as
 March 28, for on that date the Allies
 began a small offensive up the Sedjenane
 valley to recover from Colonel Witzig
 and his parachutists the ground they
 had won the previous month. It was
 the first of the necessary preparatory
 moves to clear the road to Tunis. By
 it, pressure on the flank above Beja
 was relieved. It was successful. The

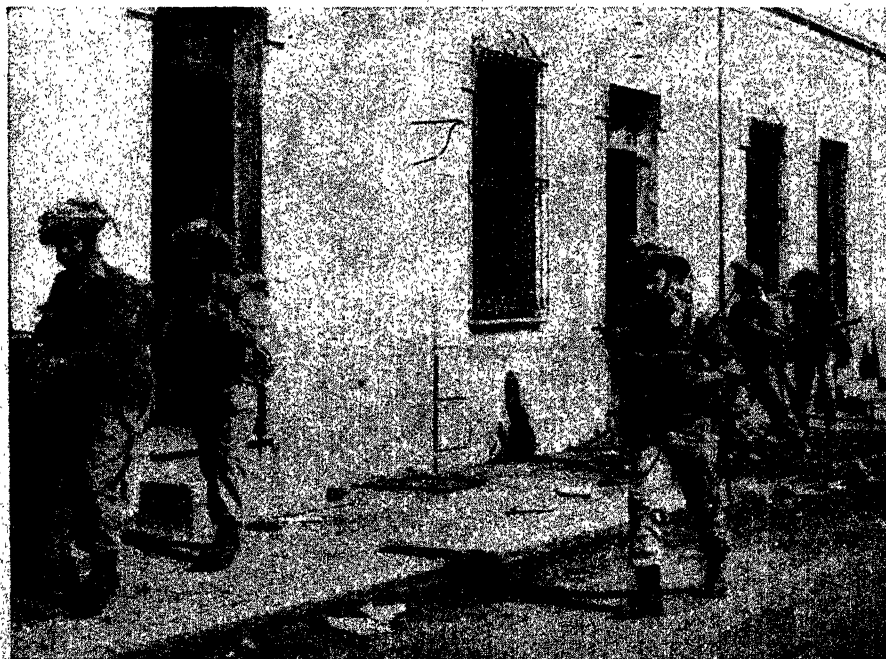


MONTGOMERY IN SOUSSE

The Eighth Army occupied Sousse, third port
 of Tunisia, on April 12, 1943. When General
 Montgomery drove through the city on
 April 16, to be received by the civic and
 military authorities, he was given a great
 welcome by the people. Left, British troops
 of the Eighth searching for snipers in a
 deserted street of Enfidaville, captured on
 April 20 after very fierce fighting.

second began 10 days later, on April 7.
 It was planned to recapture the 10
 peaks above Oued Zarga which
 dominated the triangle of roads between
 Beja, Mateur, and Medjez-el-Bab.

The Battle of the Ten Peaks is one
 of the masterpieces of the whole
 Tunisian campaign. It was almost the
 greatest achievement of that ill-appre-
 ciated body, the British First Army.
 At 4 o'clock on the morning of April 7,
 the battle began with a mass bombard-
 ment from 12 miles of guns along the
 Beja-Medjez road. Ten minutes later
 the infantry went in. Churchill tanks
 followed them at first light. For





VICTORY FOR THE FIRST ARMY IN TUNISIA

Bren carriers moving along the top of 'Recce' Ridge during the large-scale attack by British troops and tanks which resulted in the capture of Toukabeur on April 8, 1943. Right, a Nazi flag left behind in captured Chaouach. Below, following the capture of Chaouach on April 9, and guided by air reconnaissance, First Army artillery laid a barrage on a high ridge north-west of Heidous, while infantry and tanks crept up to a point half a mile to the west. (See map, page 2773.)

Photos, British Official



the first time in this warfare of the "Djebels," tanks were thrown straight up steep mountain sides. The enemy had not believed this possible. There were few anti-tank guns throughout the area, and against the armour of the Churchills the heavy machine-guns were useless. Across slit trenches and weapon pits the tanks rumbled and groaned, and what the tanks flushed the infantry finished off. By the afternoon the first hill positions had been taken, and where Axis forces had been, Allied artillery was sited now.

The enemy threw in what was left of their air strength in a desperate attempt to retrieve the position, but the attempt was useless. By the second day of the attack, the Allies had five of the 10 hills and were eight miles into the Axis front, and the enemy were withdrawing from Hunt's Gap. It was a superb stroke in which artillery, tanks, infantry, supply and engineers were co-ordinated as they had never before been co-ordinated in mountain warfare.

On the night of April 13, as Messe reached the prepared line of Enfidaville, the battle for the second five hills began.

Djebel Almost at once the
el Ang Lancashire Fusiliers
Captured took the Djebel el Ang,
the commanding point
of the whole massif. The 78th Division,
the veterans of Tunisia, had made
possible the first steps of the final
victory.

It is necessary to make a comparison between November and April. In November of 1942 the "Tunis box" was held by a few battalions of parachutists and airborne troops hastily gathered together, by mortars and heavy machine-guns, backed with the first elements of the 10th Panzer Division. In April of 1943 it was held by a quarter of a million Germans and Italians strongly entrenched, with the preparations of six months behind them, in well-sited hill positions. To back them they had what remained of Rommel's and Von Arnim's armour, and the massive artillery support of two seasoned armies. They had had time to mine every gully and pass in the hills, every road and lane along the front from Enfidaville to Cap Serrat. That was the "box" that General Alexander had to open.

In the east the Eighth Army had come to a stop against the hills. General Montgomery had no open flank to exploit. His frontal attacks succeeded locally, and failed to make any deep impression on the German defences. From him General Alexander took three divisions, the Fourth Indian and the



LAST BATTLE OF LONGSTOP RIDGE

Infantry of the First Army resting under a ridge above Kelbine after they had at last, on April 25, 1942, taken Djebel Ahmra, known as Longstop Ridge, which saw such bitter fighting in December 1942 (see page 2614). Top, Longstop Ridge, still in enemy hands: this formidable natural fortress had been turned by the Axis into one of the most powerful strong points in Tunisia. Below, stretcher bearers moving up behind the troops making the final assault. East Surreys shared the honours of the battle with the Argylls. Photos, British Official



First and Seventh Armoured, and brought them round behind the line to support General Anderson and the First Army.

There is an admirable rhythm in the design of his attack. It began on the night of the 19th with a small assault on the Eighth Army sector designed to keep occupied the disproportionate Axis strength that had been attracted by the prestige of the Eighth. The enemy, anticipating that the main attack would take place somewhere in the centre, tried to disrupt it twenty-four hours before the first

phase was due to start. But they attacked in the wrong place. At 11 o'clock on the night of the 20th they attacked "Banana Ridge," immediately east of Medjez, with three battalions of infantry and 70 tanks, 40 from the north and 30 from the south. But the Allies were strong in the area in preparation for attack: the Axis assault was battered to pieces. Thirty-four tanks were knocked out and 400 prisoners taken, and the assault of the Sixth Armoured Division on the Bou Arada sector was in no wise delayed.

FROM MARETH TO THE OUTSKIRTS OF TUNIS

This map illustrates the prelude to the final stage in the North African campaign which started from El Alamein in the East, and Casablanca in the West. It covers the operations of General Alexander's armies from the end of March until April 19, 1943. The main enemy line then ran approximately as shown by the heavy shaded band from Cape Serrat to Enfidaville.



Special Order of the Day

HEADQUARTERS
18th ARMY GROUP
21st April, 1943

SOLDIERS OF THE ALLIES

1. Two months ago, when the Germans and Italians were attacking us, I told you that if you held firm, final victory was assured.
2. You did your duty and now you are about to reap its full reward.
3. We have reached the last phase of this campaign. We have ground our victorious Armies and are going to drive the enemy into the sea.

We have got them just where we want them—with their backs to the wall.

4. This final battle will be fierce, bitter and long, and will demand all the skill, strength and endurance of each one of us.

But you have proved yourselves the masters of the battle-field, and therefore you will win this last great battle which will give us the whole of North Africa.

5. The eyes of the world are on you—and the hopes of all at home.

FORWARD THEN, TO VICTORY

H.R. Alexander

General,

Commander, 18th Army Group

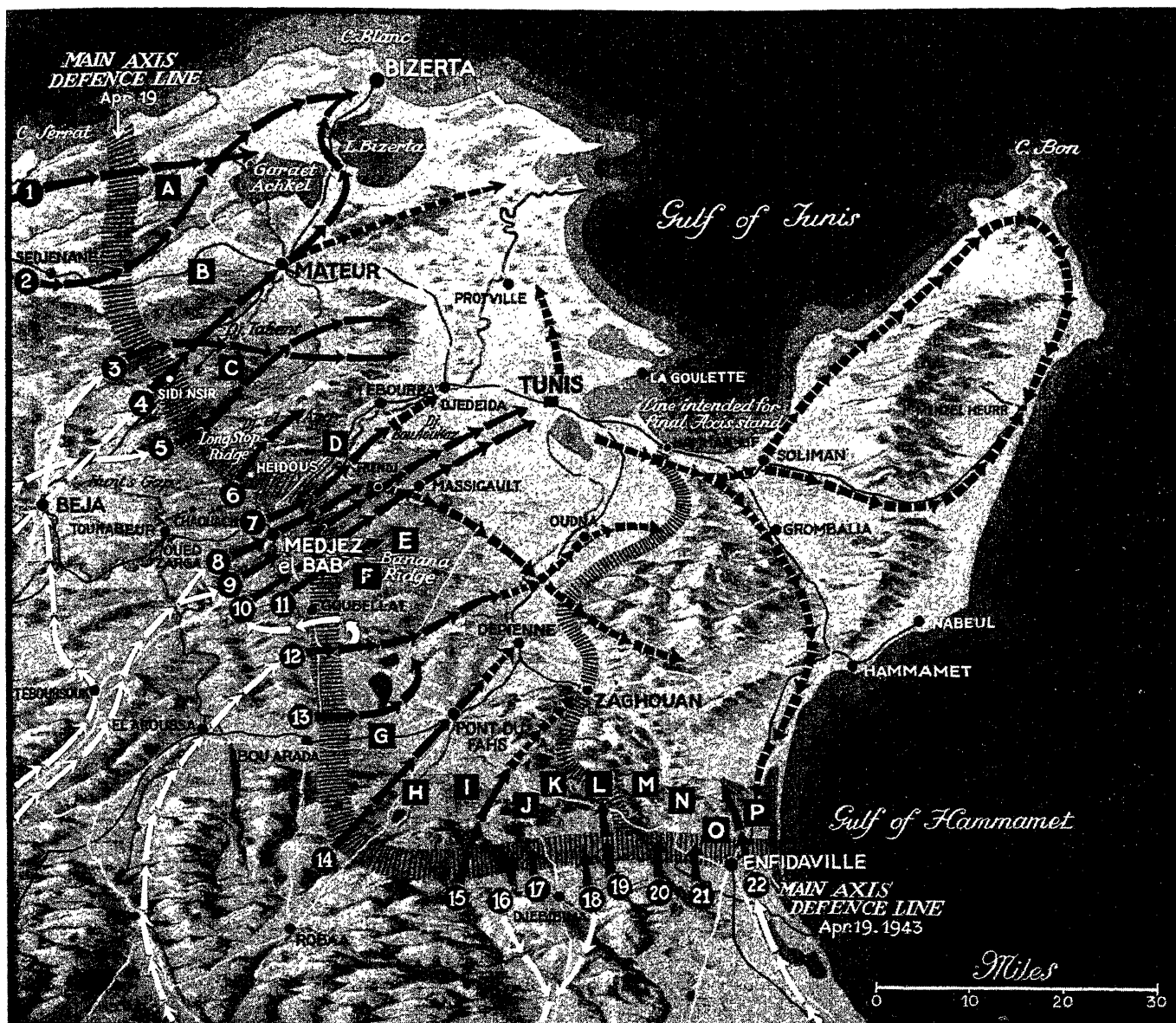
BATTLE FOR TUNIS

General Sir Harold Alexander's Special Order of the Day to the Allied armies in North Africa before the final phase of the war in Tunisia. Tunis fell on May 6, armoured elements of the First Army entering the city at 3.40 p.m. after an advance of 23 miles in 36 hours against stiff resistance.

At 2 a.m. on April 22 the Bou Arada attack began. It was designed partially as an experiment to test the strength of the Axis holding (Bou Arada-Pont du Fahs was a good approach to Tunis) and partially to clear the right flank of the Medjez-Massicaud main road to the capital. It did not break through, though it caused the enemy heavy losses in an indeterminate struggle amongst the little isolated hills that dotted the plain; but it served its secondary purpose.

The left flank of the Medjez-el-Bab road was dominated by the old and brutal bastion of Longstop Ridge. The Allies attacked that on April 23. It took three days to capture Longstop—three of the hardest days' fighting in the whole history of Tunisia—and it was captured in the end by the Argylls and the East Surreys. Major Jack Anderson, leading the Argylls in the final charge, earned a magnificent V.C.

In the north there was another offensive. On the extreme seaward flank the Goum and the Corps d'Afrique had cut through the terrible scrub country of the coastal hills, and when Longstop fell they were six miles from the Garaet Achkel, the outermost of the two great lakes of Bizerta. Between



AXIS OBLITERATED IN NORTH AFRICA

Dispositions of Allied and Axis forces during the final assault on the 'defence' box around Tunis—last action of the long-drawn-out North African operations. Allied troop movements before April 19, 1943, are shown by white arrows, and the direction of Allied attacks immediately after that date by solid black arrows. Allied encircling operations after the fall of Tunis are shown by broken black arrows. Numbers and letters (see list on right) show positions of units.

Maps based on information from official sources and specially drawn by Félix Gardon

them and the First Army the Americans had gone forward superbly. It was vicious mountain country; limestone ridges, like the comb of an angry cockerel, stood out of the steep shoulders of the hills. It was a place of knife edges and jagged cliffs. But along the last ridges of the Sedjenane valley and up into the hills beyond Sidi Nsir they thrust and, thrusting, broke the perimeter of the north. At Hill 609, Djebel Tahent, they smashed the main Axis defence line and opened the road to Mateur. For days the fighting for 609 went on. On April 30, four days after Longstop had been taken, Sherman tanks, emulating the Churchills of the "Ten Peaks," reached the summit and looked out across the diminishing hills.

On April 25, following the beginnings of the American attack, the French of the Djebel Mansour region, south-west of Pont du Fahs, attacked in the last of the preparatory series. The first phase of the main attack was over and its principal objectives were secure. Right, left, and centre General Alexander had attacked, and by the timing of his thrusts had prevented massing of enemy reserves at the threatened points.

There remained the final blow, and against it one strong-point stood out—the companion hill to Longstop across the valley of the Mejerda River, the Djebel Bou Aoukaz. This was the last bastion of a line threatened already in the north and in the south. The Allies took Bou Aoukaz. This attack began

Allied Forces

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1 French | 12 1st and 6th U.K. Armoured Div. |
| 2 U.S. 9th Div. | 13 46th U.K. Div. |
| 3 U.S. 34th Div. | 14 French |
| 4 U.S. 1st Armoured Div. | 15 French |
| 5 U.S. 1st Div. | 16 7th U.K. Armoured Div. |
| 6 78th U.K. Div. | 17 French |
| 7 1st U.K. Div. | 18 4th Indian Div. |
| 8 4th Indian Div. | 19 51st Highland Div. |
| 9 7th U.K. Armoured Div. | 20 French |
| 10 6th U.K. Armoured Div. | 21 2nd N.Z. Div. and Armoured Bgde. |
| 11 4th U.K. Div. | 22 50th U.K. Div. |

Axis Forces

- | | |
|---------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| A Italian Marines | I Remains of 21st Panzer Div. |
| B Manteufel Group | J Remains of 15th Panzer Div. |
| C Part of 334th Div. | K Remains of Trieste Div. |
| D 999th Div. | L Remains of Pistoia Div. |
| E Part of 334th Div. and Armour | M Remains of Young Fascists Div. |
| F Hermann Goering Div. | N Centauro Div. |
| G 10th Panzer Div. | O 164th Light Div. |
| H Superga Div. | P 90th Light Div. |

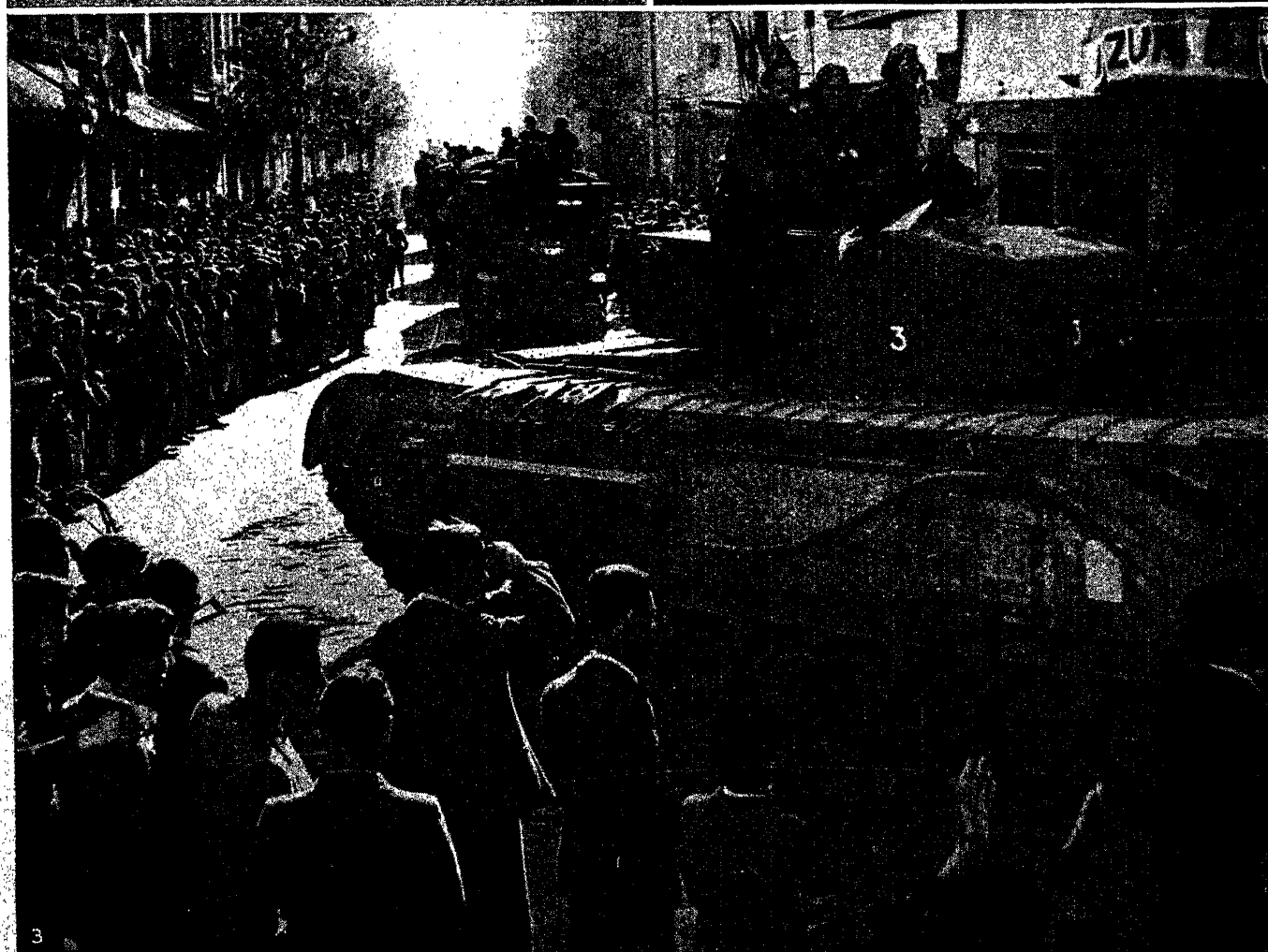
almost as soon as Longstop Ridge had been taken. It was under Bou Aoukaz that the American Combat Command "B" had met with disaster in the early days of December 1942. It was the



LAST LAP IN THE NORTH AFRICAN CAMPAIGN

1. German 'nebelwerfer,' which projected both smoke and high explosive shells, captured during the advance on Tunis. 2. General Alexander, Deputy C-in-C, watches the armour closing in on Tunis: after having driven back near Massicaut a force of about 60 enemy tanks, a solid wedge of some 400 British tanks moved forward in choking dust clouds towards the city. 3. Transport, troops and armoured vehicles crossing the ford at Djedeida on the way from Medjez-el-Bab. All the way between Medjez and Tunis the First Army had to overcome fierce German counter-attacks, in which the enemy suffered severely.

Photos, British Official



TUNIS IN ALLIED HANDS

Tunis fell on May 7, 1943, the first British units to enter the city being the Derbyshire Yeomanry and the 11th Hussars. During the afternoon, more and more troops streamed in, welcomed rapturously by the French population. But sniping and street fighting continued. 1. Germans surrender to a British tank at Frenel. 2. Men of the Rifle Brigade fire on German snipers in Tunis. 3. A Churchill tank heads a long column of Allied armor and transport that drove through the streets of the city; cheering crowds pelted them with flowers as they went by. *Photos: British Official*



ENTRY INTO BIZERTA

Forward elements of the U.S. Second Corps entered Bizerta from the south at 4.15 p.m. on May 7. They found a dead city, the town and port completely ruined by Allied air bombardment. Here a U.S. patrol crouches under cover of debris while scouts go forward to reconnoitre.

German attack that swamped over these last foothills before the plain that ended the race for Tunis. Bloodily now the Allies had to pay for the weakness of their forces in the early days. Bou Aoukaz was stormed to within 300 yards of the summit, and on that line the Guards Brigade was held. It was still in Axis hands on May 5. Its overwhelming was the first move in the final thunderbolt that fell on Tunis.

In the 12 days between the taking of Longstop Ridge and the final blow, General Alexander massed his forces in the areas behind Medjez and on the borders of the little town, the Ypres of Northern Africa. Medjez North of him the Americans had broken through, flooding down the slopes of Mateur and the outskirts of Ferryville. South, the French had moved deep into the mountain tangle of the Zaghuan area. And in the centre General Alexander gathered the Fourth Division and the Fourth Indian Division, the Sixth Armoured Brigade with the 201st Guards Brigade and the Seventh Armoured Division, and elements of the old and well-tried 78th.

The front over which this force was to break was a little over 4,000 yards in width, the shallow valley of the Medjez-Massicault-Tunis road. At 3 a.m.

on May 5, it stormed "the Bou." As the dust of that storming died, the Combined Air Forces went in to the attack. On a lozenge 1,000 yards wide and four miles long they dropped the bombs of 2,000 sorties. And up that carpet of destruction the armour swept. There was still resistance—some of it heavy. The air had not abolished the enemy opposition, but it had diminished it. With the sappers working superbly on the minefields, the armour felt its way down the road to Massicault, and under the red haze of the dust broke out on to the Tunis plain. By nightfall they were 17 miles from the capital, and ahead of them the Derbyshire Yeomanry, with that élan which had been their mark and their pride through the six bitter months, were on the outskirts of the city.

It had been expected that the Axis would hold two inner lines of defence between Medjez and the port. The lines were not held. The skill, the weight and, above all, the demoralizing speed of General Alexander's last attack had shattered the fighting spirit of Von Arnim and his army. At 3.25 on the afternoon of May 7, reconnaissance units of the First Army raced into Tunis. A few minutes later, the Americans reached the centre of Bizerta. The campaign was over.

There remained only the necessary cleansing. Even as Tunis fell, the armour was sweeping on Hammam Lif, roaring through to break the last half-hearted rearguard and shatter Hitler's hopes of a holding position

on the Cape Bon peninsula. There was in military theory no reason why that position should not have been held. With a solid barrier of mountains across its isthmus, with its tumbled hinterland, the peninsula was a potential North African Gibraltar, and the Axis forces still had abundant stores. They had not fired the last round, not used the last gallon of petrol, not eaten the last case of rations. But what had happened to them was graver than these things: they had had the will to fight smashed out of them.

General Alexander had freed one continent, Africa; he had lifted from Southern Asia the fear of invasion from the west; he had made free again an inland sea. Since June 10, 1940,

**Alexander
Frees
Africa**

when Mussolini's armies first swept vaingloriously over the empty frontier into the Egyptian desert, the Axis had lost 975,000 men, 7,600 aircraft, 6,200 guns, 2,550 tanks, 70,000 trucks and 624 ships. Another 850 ships are known to have been damaged. Of that tremendous total, no fewer than 163 were ships of war.

And on May 16, when the last cleansing was done, General Sir Harold Alexander sent the following message to the Prime Minister:

Sir,—It is my duty to report that the Tunisian campaign is over. All enemy resistance has ceased. We are masters of the North African shores.

(Signed) H. R. ALEXANDER.



DEFEATED AXIS GENERALS REACH ENGLAND

Colonel-General Baron von Arnim (left), commander-in-chief in the final battles in Tunisia, and Marshal Giovanni Messe (right), c.-in.-c. of Italian forces in North Africa and, after Rommel's retirement, commander of all Axis forces during the Battle of Mareth: photographs taken after their arrival in Britain as prisoners of war on May 17, 1943.

Photos, British Official

INSIDE THE THIRD REICH AFTER STALINGRAD

Life inside Germany between July 1942 and the end of 1943 is here described by Dr. F. Heymann, formerly of the editorial staff of the 'Frankfurter Zeitung' and foreign editor of 'Bohemia' (Prague). The military successes which had justified confidence in victory came to an end. But cunning propaganda and, as the months passed, sheer suppression kept the German war machine working. For the preceding year in Germany, see Chapter 217

IN the summer of 1942 a series of sweeping German offensives in Europe and Africa made most Germans once again believe in the certainty of ultimate, and possibly not very distant, victory. In southern Russia as well as in Libya and Egypt German armies seemed to be as irresistible as ever (see Chapters 224 and 227). No wonder that with the successes won and the far greater victories which seemed to be assured, the gloom brought about by the disaster of the preceding winter in Russia disappeared. There were few defeatists left in Germany by July 1942—though many people welcomed the victories less for their military significance than because they seemed to promise an early end to the war. In August confidence rose that Russia would soon give in. German propaganda did its best to strengthen this belief within and without Germany. In order to split the Allies, rumours were launched that Britain and the U.S.A. intended to replace Stalin by "a more proficient leader." Then, to frighten Russia, Japan was said to be planning an immediate attack upon Siberia.

All these manoeuvres were of no avail, however, and in the course of September German morale dropped slightly owing

to the approach of winter without any decisive success having been obtained in the East. All German newspapers had to print long articles emphasizing that preparations for the second winter campaign in Russia had been so thorough that no German soldier would, as in the year before, suffer from cold or lack of shelter. This was small comfort, since it showed that there would be no final victory and no peace in 1942.

By the end of September German propaganda, culminating in Hitler's speech for the new "Winterhilfe" (winter relief work), left no doubt that the great offensive plans of a few months ago had had to be abandoned. Germany had reached all her goals and had occupied all the territories necessary to make herself blockade-proof. She could now go over to the defensive. In his speech, Hitler threatened Britain with retaliation for the air war against Germany. If Churchill and Roosevelt ("military idiots") tried to set foot again in the

"fortress of Europe," they could consider themselves lucky if they succeeded in holding out for nine hours, as the forces landed in Dieppe in August had done. Russia, on the other hand, had been bled white by her fearful losses from which she would never be able to recover. By cutting the Volga, the German army had deprived her of her main life line and of nearly all her oil supplies. Stalingrad itself, which was still being assaulted, would also be taken, "worauf Sie sich verlassen koennen" (you can rely on that).

It was one of the last grandiloquent and self-assured speeches in the long series of Hitler's public pronouncements. Sooner than anybody expected events proved him wrong. On October 23 General Montgomery's Eighth Army began its offensive in Egypt; 12 days later he had decisively won the Battle of El Alamein. Rommel, the one German

**Events
Prove Hitler
Wrong**

GERMANY'S FUEHRER SPEAKS

Hitler addressing Nazi party members on Nov. 8, 1942, the eve of the anniversary of the 1923 Nazi Putsch. The Allies had that very morning landed in French North Africa. He still boasted, however, that in North Africa 'the enemy moves forward and back, but what matters is the final result, and that you can leave to us.' He also asserted that he had taken Stalingrad. Another phrase ran, 'They will find out in Britain that the German inventive spirit has not been idle, and they will get an answer' (to British air raids) 'which will take their breath away.'





COLLECTION FOR WINTER CLOTHING

This painting by Josef Vietze of Prague, shown in July 1942 at the annual exhibition of German art in the House of German Art in Munich, depicts a young S.S. trooper collecting fur clothing for the use of German soldiers fighting in the snows of the Russian winter.

General who, being a hundred per cent Nazi, had been "built up" as a war god by the party propaganda, and who himself had promised the early capture of Alexandria, was fleeing towards the west. It was a nasty surprise for the German public. Official propaganda reacted by declaring that this was only one more of those frequent changes of attack and retreat consequent on the difficulty of safeguarding the long supply lines through the desert. As the retreat went on and Egypt was cleared, Nazi propaganda put all the blame on the Italians, thus for the first time employing an argument which later was used almost regularly to explain defeats in the south.

The Allied landings in French North Africa were a fresh shock. This Allied move came as a complete surprise. The German secret service, so active in Spain and Morocco, had been foxed. When Hitler, on the morning of November 8, arrived in Munich for the anniversary celebration of the Putsch of 1923, he was informed of the landings only just before he had to start his speech at the Bierkeller and thus had no appropriate answer ready. Nazi propa-

ganda explained that the invasion of North Africa was one more proof that Churchill and Roosevelt would never dare to invade Europe.

In the meantime new dangers were brewing in the east. The Russian offensive at Stalingrad, begun on November 19, had, by the end of the month, completely encircled the German Sixth Army. The German armies in the Caucasus had to retreat rapidly as they too were in danger of being cut off. All hopes of an early peace vanished. German propaganda, after having pictured Britain as enemy No. 1 of the German people, turned east, depicting the danger threatening "all Europe" from the Bolshevik "Untermenschen" and hinting at

possibilities that an understanding might be reached with the west. In the period preceding Christmas 1942, gloom settled once again over Germany, deepened by the growing strength of British air raids.

To combat this mood and distract attention from happenings at the fronts, war against the "enemy within" was stepped up again. Thousands of helpless Jews, not only from Germany, Austria and the protectorate of Bohemia-Moravia, but also from Norway, France, Holland and Yugoslavia, were sent to the huge concentration camps in Poland which soon became "Vernichtungslager" (extermination camps).

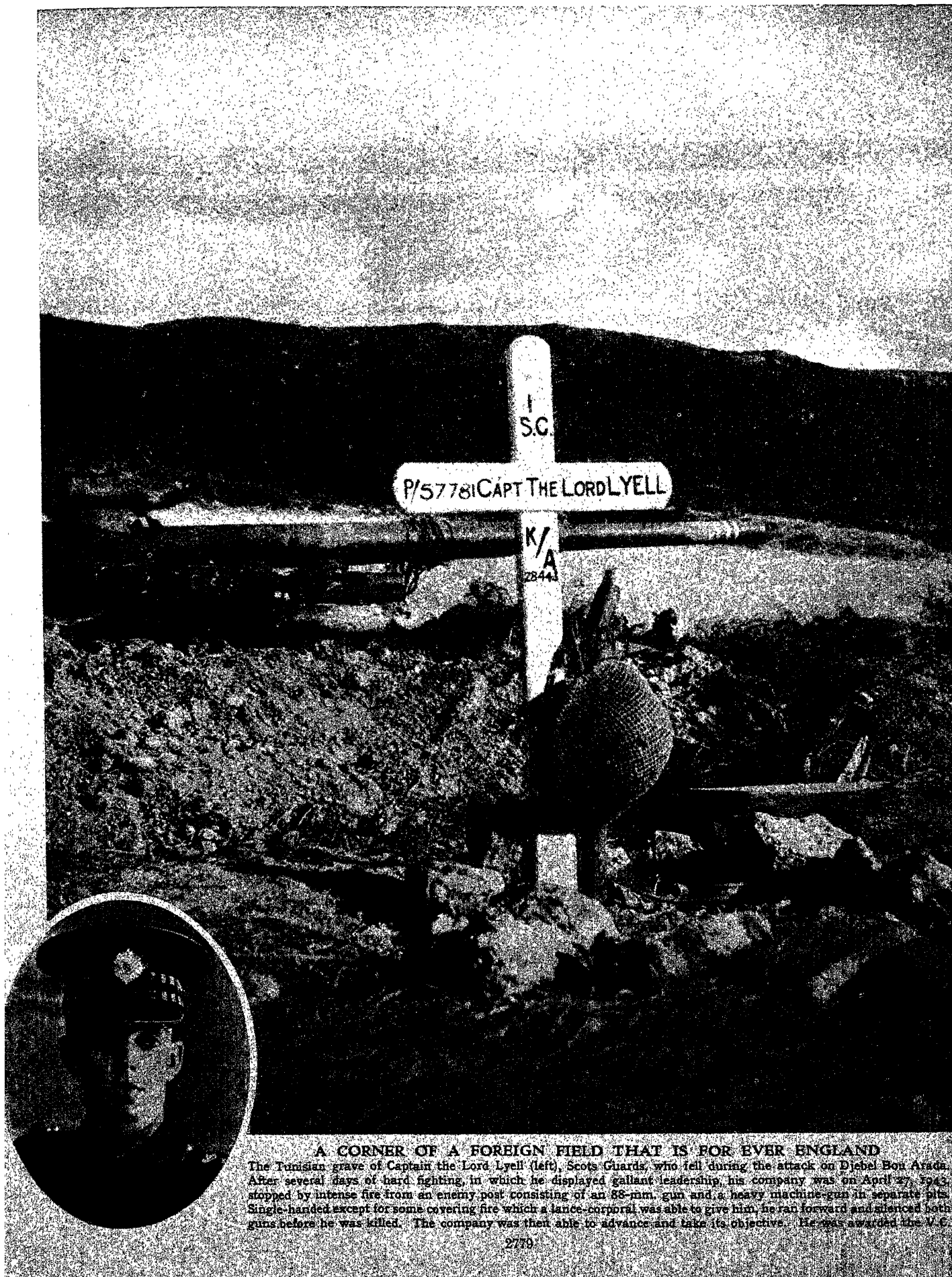
Renewed War Against 'Enemy Within'

Strange as it may seem, these fearful persecutions were continued although—as all neutral observers agree—the masses of the German people, particularly in Berlin, Hamburg and other great cities where they could observe the round up of these unhappy victims, rather resented such measures and in some cases even tried to interfere. The churches also were subjected to continuous persecution. More Roman Catholic abbeys were closed or their possessions confiscated. Hess's successor Martin Bormann, in a solemn declaration to the German people, openly confessed that Nazi philosophy was irreconcilable with Christianity of any description. In place of the old Protestant hymn book, a new hymn book for Protestant congregations was issued which tried to



WORRIED DICTATORS CONFERENCE

Left to right, Admiral Doenitz, Commander-in-Chief of the German Navy, General Zettler, Mussolini, Field-Marshal Keitel, Hitler, and Field-Marshal Goering study war maps during their conference at Salzburg, April 7-10, 1943. "Complete agreement" was achieved about the measures to be taken in all fields," stated the German communiqué issued on April 11.



A CORNER OF A FOREIGN FIELD THAT IS FOR EVER ENGLAND

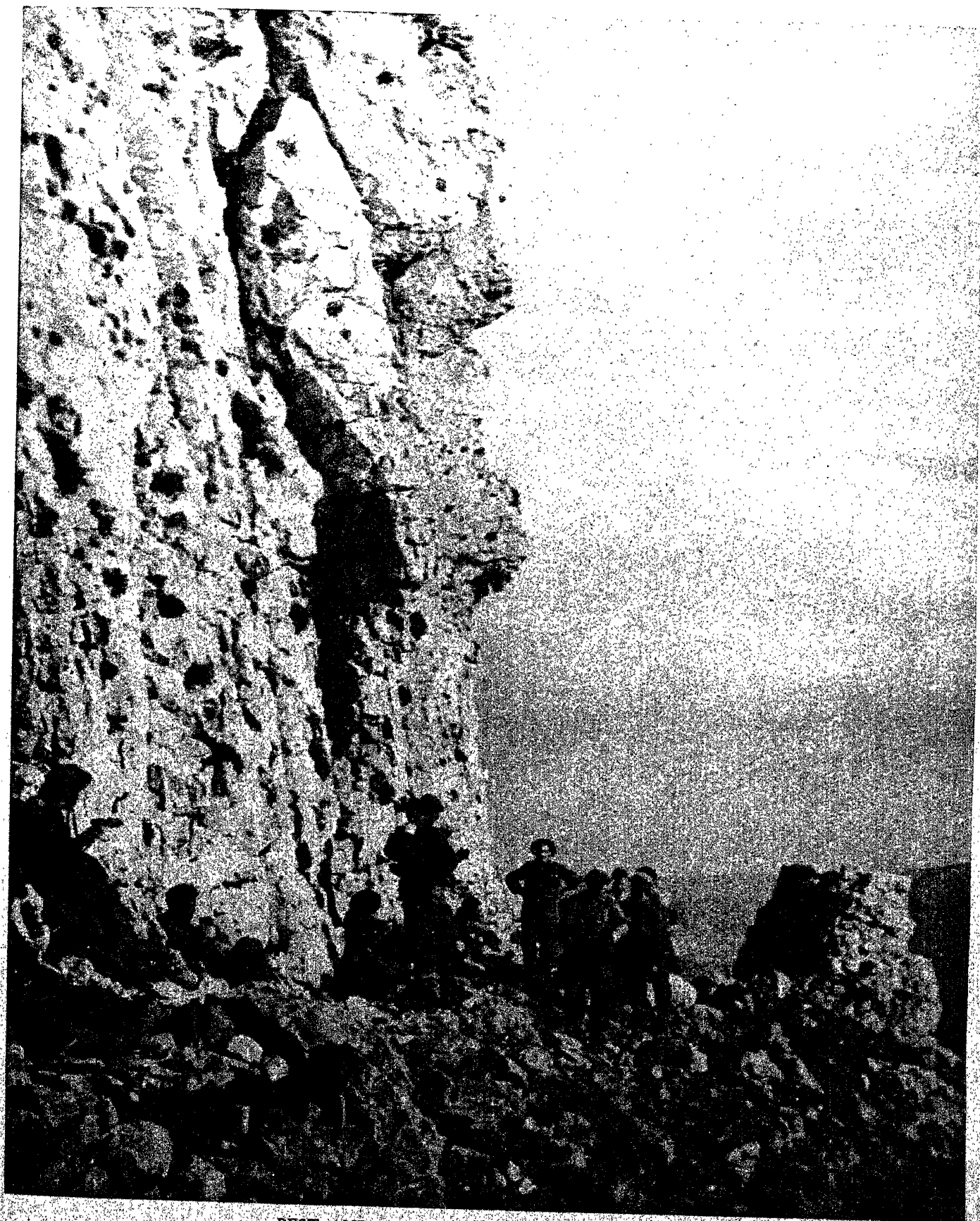
The Tunisian grave of Captain the Lord Lyell (left), Scots Guards, who fell during the attack on Diebel Bou Arada. After several days of hard fighting, in which he displayed gallant leadership, his company was on April 27, 1943, stopped by intense fire from an enemy post consisting of an 88-mm. gun and a heavy machine-gun in separate pits. Single-handed except for some covering fire which a lance-corporal was able to give him, he ran forward and silenced both guns before he was killed. The company was then able to advance and take its objective. He was awarded the V.C.



RECONNAISSANCE PATROL IN THE TUNISIAN HILLS

Photo, British Official

While the Allies were consolidating their positions after the capture of Chaouach on April 9, patrols pushed forward into the hills around the village of Heidous, probing the enemy's strength. On April 25 the German garrison in Heidous was liquidated, and the last slopes of Djebel Tangoucha remaining in enemy hands were stormed by Churchill tanks. Here a First Army patrol, including an artillery officer and two signalmen, is out looking for enemy observation posts. The wireless set carried by the mule bringing up the rear will be used to signal orders to the guns as occasion demands.



REST AND REFRESHMENT FOR THE CONQUERORS OF LONGSTOP

In the early hours of April 22, 1943, after a violent mass barrage of 400 guns, the First Army attacked in the wild mountainous country, pitted with strong enemy defences, between Goubellat and Bou Arada, and also towards Longstop. They stormed the heights of Argoub Hamra (Hill 23), Rahat Mahalla, and Kondait-Sidarka the same day at the point of the bayonet; but it was April 26 before, supported by Churchill tanks, men of the East Surreys and Argylls succeeded in driving the enemy from his last foothold on Longstop Ridge (Djebel Ahmera). (See also illus., page 277.)



TUNISIAN HARBOURS IN ALLIED HANDS

The important town of Ferryville was cleared by troops of the US Second Corps by 4 p.m. on May 7, 1943. A quarter of an hour later their forward elements entered Bizerta, second port of Tunisia, from the south, while almost simultaneously Moroccan Goumiers reached it from the west. It was found to be a dead city, the town and port ruined by Allied air bombardment. The Germans had sunk eight ships to block the harbour and had blown up the lock gates, but had withdrawn too hurriedly to have time to destroy the electrical and other public services. The Allies set to work to clear the harbour immediately, and soon British and American ships lay at anchor in Bizerta (above). Left, an Axis auxiliary naval vessel, wrecked by Allied bombing, lies on its side in the flooded dry dock at Ferryville. The desolation of the scene testifies to the devastation wrought by Allied bombing.

Photos, British Official

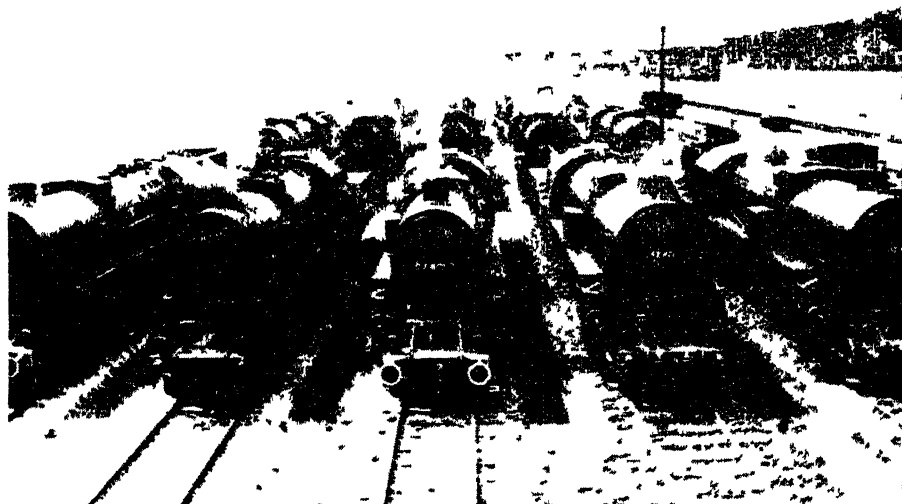


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All these measures aimed at inhibiting the whole of the German people with the true Nazi spirit, did little to cheer them. The only measure which, to some extent, had that effect was an increase in the meat ration following announcement that this was a temporary measure but would last throughout the war was generally believed. People thought it a sign that Germany was really blockade proof.

At the beginning of 1943 things moved quickly from bad to worse. It was impossible to conceal that in the sur-

rounding at Stalingrad (see Chapter 269) a catastrophe of the first order had overtaken the German Wehrmacht. Hitler, who it had been expected would make a public speech as usual on January 30, the birthday of the Third Reich, was not heard. Goebbels was left to read the Fuehrer's message over the microphone. This was Goebbels's great hour. He knew that the event was sure to cause deep depression. But when there must be gloom, it should be officially shaped and canalized, so as to be under control. The story had been well prepared: the disaster of Stalingrad was, according to Goebbels, the supreme sacrifice of a German army and its commanders, who had all without exception given their lives to hold the onrush of the "Asiatic hordes" and to enable the German High Command to stabilize the front. It was, absurdly enough, most unwelcome when the news slowly



ARMoured LOCOMOTIVES FOR THE EASTERN FRONT

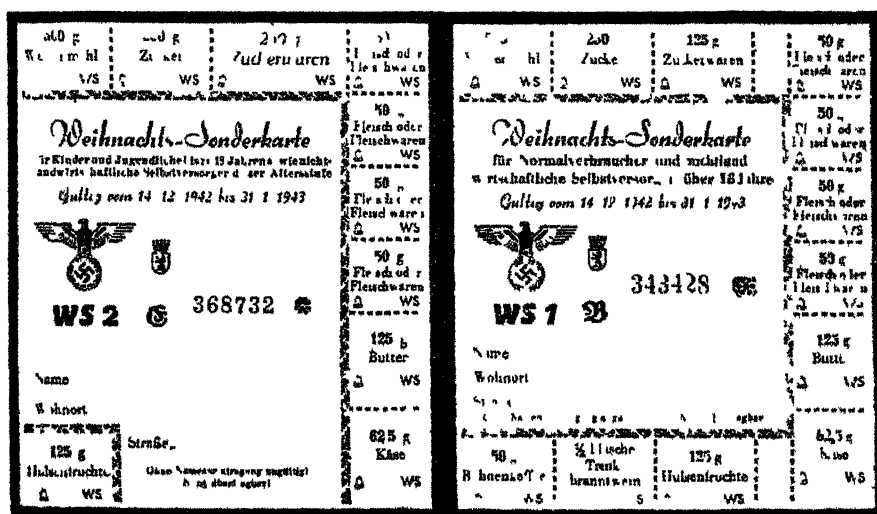
By a coincidence, five pilot engines each leading ten new fully-armoured locomotives came together in a German marshalling yard. This concentration of war engines for the eastern front (explains the German description of this photograph) is a proof of the fulfilment of the new engine-building programme promoted by the Fuehrer, and a clear indication of the unbroken will to victory of the German armament industry. Photo, Keystone

filtered through to Germany that more than 90,000 men, including Field-Marshal von Paulus, had laid down their arms. When all was over, a great national mourning was organized. No theatrical or other entertainment was given for three days, and there were mourning manifestations of every kind.

At the same time the masses had to be shown that something drastic was being done to redeem the situation. Until then it had been taken for granted that Germany, where the expression "total war" originated, was totally mobilized. Now the discovery was made that this was not the case at all, that

Germany had still vast reserves of unused man- and woman power whose mobilization would make all the difference. Compulsory registration was ordered for all men between 16 and 65, and for all women between 17 and 45. The idea was to send armament workers to the front and to replace them by the newly conscripted. In general the outcome of this mobilization was far from satisfactory. One of the first measures taken was the closing down of small shops, craftsmen's workshops, catering and entertainment establishments, branches of banks and insurance firms. This was a hard blow to the German middle class, already the chief victim of war conditions. Nearly 1,000 (out of about 2,400) newspapers were closed down, not so much to save labour (as was pretended) as to get rid of all those papers still outside the Nazi party or where the editorial staffs included somewhat lukewarm followers of the party line.

Three months later came another debacle, in Tunisia (see Chapter 277). That was much more of a surprise to the German public than Stalingrad. They had, it is true, already learned to respect Montgomery's generalship and the striking power of the British Eighth Army. But they had been told that the other Allied forces in North Africa, particularly American and French, counted for nothing—they had no battle experience and their supplies were constantly destroyed by U-boat attacks on their supply lines. The stubborn resistance offered during



SPECIAL RATION CARDS FOR CHRISTMAS

Cards, left for a child or young person up to 18, right for a worker other than a landworker over 18, issued to German citizens at Christmas 1942. The German description comments: 'While the enemy powers must steadily reduce their food rations, thanks to the brave and victorious German soldiers, the Reich is able to grant all German citizens a considerable special allotment for the Christmas festival', but the long validity of these cards (14.12.1942 to 31.1.1943) suggests that there may have been some difficulty in meeting them.

the winter of 1942-43 by the forces of Von Arnim and Messe had made people believe that the "African bridge-head" would be held and would make it impossible for the Allies even to contemplate an invasion of Europe from the south. The very suddenness of the final breakdown made it impossible to believe that the Axis armies had "fought to the last man and patroné." All that was left to Goebbels was boldly to announce that Africa had never been of any particular value to the defence of the "Fortress of Europe," whose real bulwark was Sicily, now strongly defended by German and Italian crack troops.

People in general were not quite as depressed by the Tunisian capitulation as they had been by the Stalingrad catastrophe, mainly because there were



HITLER YOUTH IN TRAINING

Physical training camps were established in 1942 by the Hitler Youth organization, in which all youths of 16½ underwent a compulsory three weeks' course before joining the army. Men who had seen service at the front trained the lads, some of whom are here learning direction-finding by means of the prismatic compass.



MOBILE A.A. GUNS ON THE GERMAN RAILWAYS

The mounting Allied air offensive against Germany was directed against her communications as well as against her industrial towns. Batteries of four guns mounted on rail-chassis were used as mobile defence of the railways. The troops manning them lived in coaches drawn up on the sidings. Crews are here seen undergoing training in handling one of these guns.

many fewer killed and many more prisoners among the German casualties, and the next-of-kin of sons or husbands who were prisoners of war in British or American hands were much less afraid for what was going to happen to them than in the case of those held by Russia.

People's minds, moreover, were soon diverted from Tunisia by the sudden announcement of the cutting of the meat ration from 350 to 250 grams per week, a cut not compensated for by a small rise in the bread ration (by 75 g.) and the fat ration (by 12½ g.). This tightening of the belt, though it belied Goering's firm promises of a few months before, was deliberate policy, and it had, in no small measure, the desired effect: people stopped talking of military events; their minds were occupied by the food question.

The months from February to April witnessed also a sharp increase in the weight of British bombs dropped on Germany. These attacks were much too devastating to allow the German authorities to minimize their effect. Not only the A.R.P. but also the repair organization, which had been effective during 1942, proved to be well nigh helpless in the face of the heavy "saturation raids." After the new raids on Berlin, particularly the raid of March 1, no attempt was made to restore the general façade

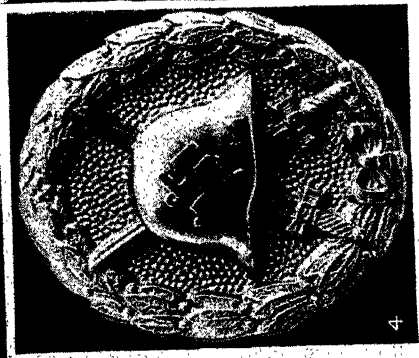
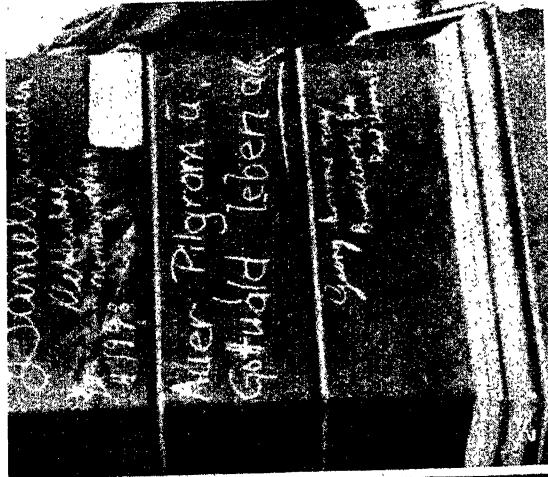
Meat
Ration
Cut



'R.A.F. BOMBERS IN GREAT STRENGTH . . .'

A long line of German civilians evacuating an unnamed town in North Germany which had been badly hit by the R.A.F. (Right) Members of a motorized A.R.P. unit of the Luftwaffe in the streets of another unnamed German town the morning after a visit from our heavy bombers. (Below) Berlin blazing after bombing with British phosphorus bombs. 'Although the horror of the actual bombardment is great, the real misery begins when people stand in front of the ruins of their houses,' said a report on Berlin in December 1943. 'Estimates put the number of homeless seeking aid and relief at nearly 3,000,000.'





BERLIN UNDER AIR ATTACK
 1. Housewives at an emergency field kitchen near the Brandenburger Tor after a heavy R.A.F. raid. 2. Notices chalked up on a wall explaining to friends and relatives how 'To reach Daniels' and that 'Auer Pilgram and Gottwald all live.' 3. A food lorry in a bomb-wrecked quarter of Berlin: food supply was one of the chief problems of the German capital after the R.A.F. raids. 4. Medal awarded to wounded soldiers, which was given also to civilians wounded on the home front. 5. They have lost all—except faith and courage: homeless Berliners in a public building waiting to be evacuated.



HAMBURG STREET SCENE: AUTUMN 1943

of the capital, and repair was limited to less-damaged houses and factories

In spite of all the setbacks suffered by Germany in the east, in Africa and in the air, the number of Germans who fully realized the plight into which

'The Rommel of the Sea' Hitler's war had led them was, in the spring of 1943, still limited. There seemed still to be strong reasons for hope. One of them was the Battle of the Atlantic. In January Raeder had been replaced as supreme Commander of the German Navy by Doenitz, who up to that time had commanded the U-boat fleets alone. Doenitz, who had attained flag rank only four years before and was now promoted to the rank of Gross-admiral (Admiral of the Fleet), was intimately connected with the Party. Like Rommel he was studiously "built up" by propaganda—indeed he was sometimes called "the Rommel of the Sea," to imply that he was the very embodiment of the offensive spirit. There was no lack of hints that henceforth the fight against the life lines of Germany's enemies would be conducted with greater vigour than hither-

The R.A.F. began bombing Hamburg in 1940, but the number and weight of their attacks were steeply stepped up during 1943. In July they dropped 6,900 tons on the city in less than a week—at that time a battering unparalleled during the war. The docks, industrial and metal-working plants, motor-works and gasworks suffered, damage being especially severe in the industrial districts of St. Georg, Billwader-Ausschlag, and Grasbrook.

to, and not by U-boats alone but also by surface forces operating from Norwegian waters and by aircraft. When, in March, Doenitz's spring offensive was at its height special communiqués and radio and press comments made the most of it, to make people believe that the war could be won by the U-boats. As it was impossible for the ordinary citizen to check the correctness of news telling of sea victories (whereas in relation to operations on land he could at least look at the map), such news was, if necessary, invented in order to cheer people up.

The varying lines and twists of German propaganda must be dealt with at some length, since propaganda in Nazi Germany was not only of an importance quite unknown in the history of any other country but actually to a large extent replaced all political life in its proper sense. Still, it would be wrong to assume that the behaviour of the German masses was, and could ever be,

guided by propaganda alone, even by as nimble and cunning a propaganda as that devised by Goebbels and his chief collaborators. As long as events justified at least in some degree confident assurances of victory, the sober or critical voices of sceptics or those in opposition were drowned, and propaganda could do most of the work required to keep up German morale. But the more the course of the war led to the discarding of optimistic views, the more sheer suppression had to be used to keep down currents that might disturb the smooth working of the German war machine. In the second half of 1942 and even more in 1943 the power of the S.S. was steadily increased. Its leader Heinrich Himmler, already the chief of the Gestapo and the whole German police, became Minister of the Interior and thereby head of the whole Civil Service of Germany.

One of the most important fields of influence secured by the S.S. already in

1942 was the Reich Ministry of Justice and the administration of penal law. In August of that year Thierack was appointed Minister of Justice. He had been president of the "Volksgerichtshof," the notorious "people's court" which in reality was a mere party organ whose task it was to judge political "crimes" according to the most arbitrary rules. Thierack was one of Himmler's reliable henchmen, a ruthless S.S.-man, as was also his Permanent Under-Secretary of State Herr Rothenberger, appointed at the same time.

Thierack was given full power to "reform" all existing laws as he (or rather as Himmler and the S.S.) pleased. He closed down a great number of ordinary

Law 'Reformed' out of Existence

parochial courts and removed many thousands of judges from office, thereby getting rid in the main of those whose unreserved adherence to the party seemed doubtful. On the other hand he augmented the number of special courts, consisting of juries chosen only among reliable party-members and presided over by S.S. functionaries. They had the right to pass sentences of death or penal servitude without regard to any written law, and there was no appeal against their sentences. These courts got very much busier in 1943, when mass arrests became frequent. The victims were partly workmen who were suspected of having organized opposition groups (in Siemensstadt, the industrial suburb of Berlin, 600 workers were,

according to reliable neutral sources, arrested by the Gestapo at the beginning of 1943), partly intellectuals who, it was thought, might be potential leaders of future opposition movements. In March 1943 two officials of the Foreign Office were executed. Much more of the real background of opposition was revealed when, about the same time, there was a revolt among some of the students at Munich University. Many were arrested, others deprived of their right to continue their studies and sent to the front, while two men supposed to be the leaders, Professor Huber and a student named Hans Scholl, were executed. As the year went on, more such executions followed, some of them given wide publicity. In one fortnight of September 1943 alone, four out of a much greater number of executions were publicly announced and commented on at length in the German press, all the victims being accused of having spread defeatism. Among those executed for this "crime" was a high official in Mecklenburg, Regierungsrat Theodor Korselt.

It was, however, an exception when, within a few days of these events, a higher party official was also put to death for excessive corruption. This was a show trial intended to demonstrate to the masses that Nazi Justice did not tolerate corruption among responsible party officials. In reality it was common knowledge that corruption and venality had become almost a matter of course with a large part of



HIMMLER SEES DAMAGE

The targets attacked by the R.A.F. were not all industrial cities or railways and other communications. Some of them were secret dumps, factories, and research stations placed among woodlands in the country. Himmler, head of the Gestapo, is here inspecting the damage done to one such secret target. Photo, Associated Press



NEWLY ARRIVED EVACUEES

The heavy attacks on German towns by the R.A.F. and the U.S.A.A.F. produced almost insuperable difficulties in evacuation. In areas to which large numbers of town inhabitants were drafted, the whole economic organization was upset, with the result that much friction was caused between natives and visitors. Here, a coachload of newly arrived evacuees awaits direction to billets in a "safe area" town. Photo, Keystone

Nazi officialdom from top to bottom, the Gestapo by no means excluded. Services of every kind could, and often had to, be bought by bribes. Whereas in previous years money would do a great deal, it was becoming more and more necessary to pay with what was called "Sachwerte," material values, ranging from food "gifts" up to furniture, grand pianos and pictures.

This showed clearly that most people had little confidence in the stability of the Reichsmark, but realized the process of hidden inflation started years before by the economic policy of the Nazis. Money could

Lack of Confidence in Reichsmark

buy little, shops were empty of all merchandise except the bare necessities of life, everything else was regarded as luxury and could be bought in the black market only for incredible prices. 250 marks (£12 10s.) were paid for one kilogram (two pounds) of coffee, and smokers (whose ration was four cigarettes a day) were prepared to pay sixpence and in some cases even one shilling for a single cigarette.

From the middle of May until the beginning of July 1943 there was a

lull in the war on all fronts which gave the German home front some time to recuperate, though the R.A.F.'s attack on the two great dams of the Eder and the Moehne rivers (see page 2660 and illus., page 2659) created havoc in the whole Ruhr district and in the industrial district of Cassel. Their output of war products and (in Cassel) railway engines was greatly impaired by this spectacular success, and it proved very difficult for German propaganda to minimize its effect.

Knowing that the Russians were waiting impatiently for the opening of another front on the Continent, German propaganda used this period

Attempts to Disrupt Allies

for renewed attempts to create mistrust between the Allies. One of these moves had a real and far-reaching success. The Nazis staged the "discovery" of the common grave of some 10,000 officers of the Polish Army, on whose bodies documents were found, "proving" that they had been murdered by the Russians early in 1940. The whole story was another "Reichstag fire," a crime deliberately committed by the Nazis in order to incriminate somebody else. This fact, established beyond any doubt by later investigations, was not then recognized by the Polish Government in London, which asked the International Red Cross to undertake an investigation. But the rest of this sorry story does not belong to German history; it is told in page 2735.

In the second week of July the lull in the fighting came to an end. On the 10th the Allied armies landed in Sicily (see Chapter 283), whereupon Nazi propaganda promptly disclaimed having ever thought of Sicily as a stronghold of the Fortress of Europe. Now the great island was nothing but an "unfortified outpost" which belonged rather to Africa than to Europe. Almost simultaneously with the opening of the battle in the south, the East Front sprang to life again. After vast preparations a strong German offensive was started against the Kursk salient (see Chapter 282). Very soon, when its complete failure became apparent, the German High Command claimed that it had been only a "reconnaissance in force," aimed at revealing the Russian offensive plans.

The greatest shock, however, that hit the German home front in the fateful summer of 1943 was the downfall of Mussolini and the surrender of Italy. Even after Badoglio had dissolved the Fascist party, Goebbels tried to persuade the German people that what had happened was only a "change of

government," that Italo-German relations were not influenced by this event and that Italy would stay in the war. When the surrender was announced the effect throughout Germany was enormous. In some circles, Italy's advantage in having a king who could dismiss the Duce was discussed more or less openly. The speed and apparent ease with which the whole intricate fabric of the Fascist state and dictatorship, once a model for Nazi Germany, vanished without any real fight for existence could not fail to impress all Germans. The Nazi leaders took three steps to counteract these dangerous thoughts and impressions. Propagandist talks



DICTATOR AND EX-DICTATOR

Hitler greets Mussolini after the Duce's rescue on September 12, 1943, from imprisonment in an hotel on Gran Sasso, a 9,000-ft. mountain in the Abruzzi, by S.S. men dropped by parachute. The parachutists were followed by Fieseler-Storch aircraft, which landed on a plateau outside the hotel and took off Mussolini and his rescuers.

Photo, Keystone

and articles argued that in Italy the Fascist regime had never been strong enough to eradicate those "plutocratic" elements which, together with the "treacherous dwarf Victor Emanuel," had stabbed in the back and overthrown the Fascist regime. Nothing like that could ever happen in Germany where such elements no longer existed or were much too weak to endanger the "Volksgemeinschaft." The second was a rather theatrical move: the liberation of Mussolini by German S.S. Parachute troops, intended to show the striking power of Germany as well as to allow her to build up the "Italian Fascist Republic" with the Duce at

its head. The third move was mainly military in character, though it had strong political implications as well: it was the occupation of Rome and the greater part of the Italian mainland. Yet this move, and the comparatively slow Allied progress in Italy during the following winter, hardly compensated for the catastrophic worsening of Germany's general situation. It is impossible even to mention all the desperate attempts of Nazi propaganda to deceive or console the German people in the face of the loss of those vast eastern territories on which a little earlier all hopes of a sustained economic war effort had been built. The German armies were now "successfully disengaging" all the time. They were always "retreating according to plan" and "still held the initiative" even when the Dnieper line, which had long been proclaimed as the final line of resistance, was overrun by the Russians.

Actually the masses of the German people at home grew less and less interested in what was going on at the front. They had become more apathetic and weary—and they had their own front: the night attacks by the R.A.F., and

Increasing Apathy of the People

now, in addition, day raids by the U.S.A.A.F. This air offensive grew steadily more concentrated, and large scale evacuation, which had already taken millions of people from western Germany, had to be extended to Hamburg, Berlin and other cities. Among the reception areas were regions in western Poland, in Czechoslovakia and, especially, in Austria, which was sometimes called the air raid shelter of the Reich. This great influx of Reich German elements did nothing to soften the attitude of the Austrian people, the majority of whom, former Nazis not wholly excluded, showed their aversion to the intruders in many ways—by strikes and riots, by sabotage in factories where Austrians sometimes made common cause with the masses of foreign slave workers, and last but not least, by many little pinpricks. Thus neutral observers reported that Reich Germans living in Vienna were so consistently shown the wrong direction when asking their way that even policemen sent there from the north relied only on street maps to find their way about.

The profound change in Germany's war situation during the period concerned found a remarkable reflection in the treatment of Allied prisoners of war in German hands. From the beginning of the war it had been German policy to adhere to the Geneva rules and the agreement of 1929 only so long as it



WITH GERMANY'S WAR WORKERS

A girl, formerly a student at the Berlin Academy of Art in training as an oxy-acetylene welder. Right the Vienna Philharmonic Orchestra under the internationally famous conductor Wilhelm Furtwangler gives a concert in a Berlin arms factory. The Mayor of Berlin was present. It will be noted that this is not a case of 'music while you work' - the workers are attending only to the music

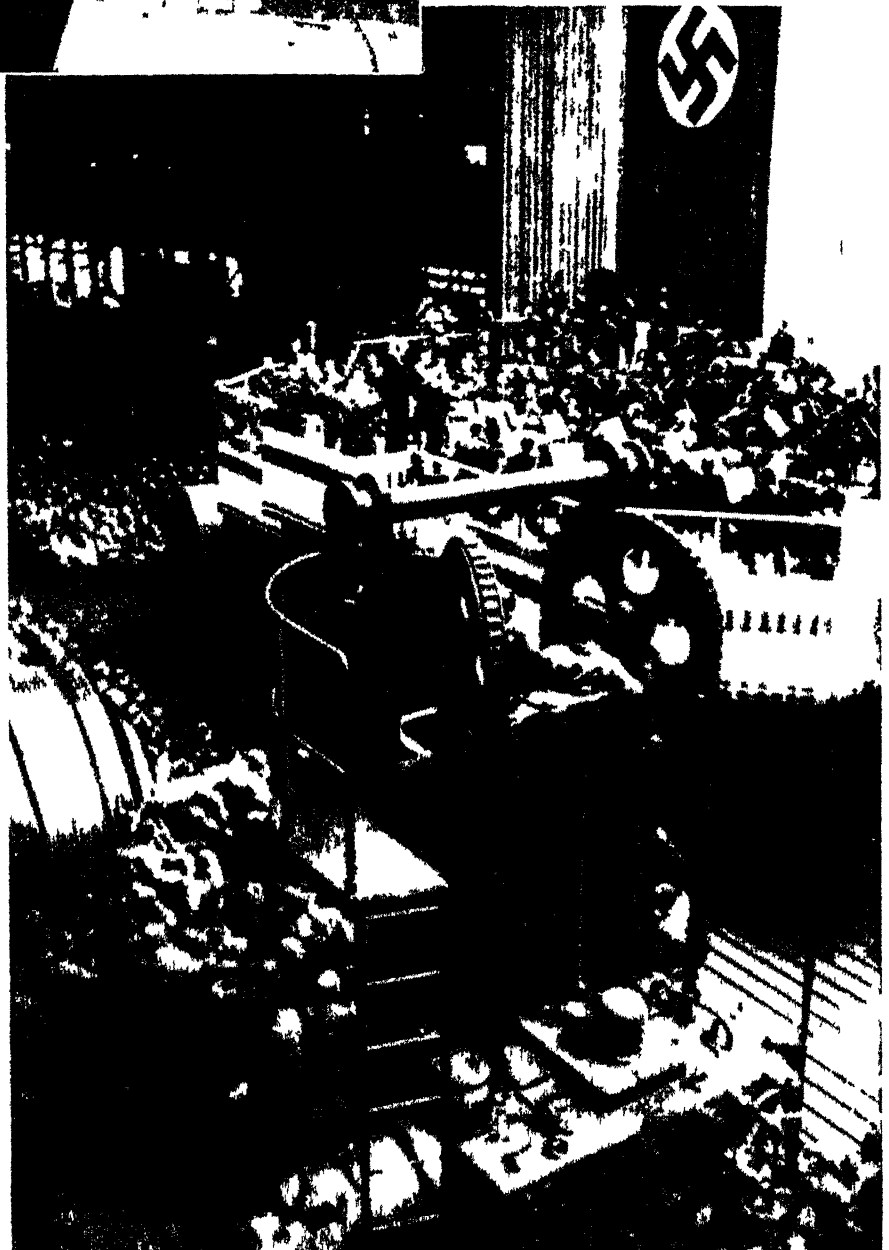
served their purposes. Polish prisoners had never been treated with any consideration, and after the Battle of France the treatment of British and French prisoners also was harsh. Treatment of British prisoners, however, improved towards the end of 1940, at a time when numbers of Luftwaffe and U-boat personnel were prisoners in British hands. French prisoners in Germany were by far the largest in numbers, and the release of a great part of them, promised to the Vichy Government, was never effected. They were kept in Germany partly to blackmail the French into sending to Germany more skilled industrial workers (most of whom had never been drafted into the army), and partly because this prolonged captivity of a great percentage of young Frenchmen tended to keep the French birth-rate low. Polish and French and, as far as possible, British prisoners were soon made to work on farms.

Their lot was enviable compared with that of the thousands of Russians captured during the first phases of the war in the east. Russia had not been a partner to the Geneva Convention or the agreement of 1929, which made it difficult for her to get anything like the protection which Swiss and Swedish

Russians also have tried to get. British and French prisoners, however, was that they were not only treated as prisoners of war but as human beings. In the Russian lands and in the Soviet Union of the 1930s

Russians
Treated
as Slaves

Russians also have tried to get. British and French prisoners, however, was that they were not only treated as prisoners of war but as human beings. In the Russian lands and in the Soviet Union of the 1930s



So little did the Nazis expect the fundamental basis of their policy was that the very secret of German prisoners in the West. With the coming of the winter was still in the West. Russian prisoners of war a considerable part of the manpower employed for this purpose. In May 1942 when consequent to the huge German losses in the Russian winter war the manpower question grew more acute an order was issued that of all prisoners of war in Germany with the exception of the British one half should be made to work for armament production.

The basis of this whole policy had always been the fact that the Germans held far more prisoners of war in their



RELIEF FROM THE TEDIUM OF PRISON LIFE

Parcels from home have arrived—British prisoners of war at Camp Oflag IXa smile with happiness during the distribution—a photograph taken and sent home by a prisoner in the camp. Above, one of the combatants knocked through the ropes during a boxing match at another camp. Educational programmes, games, exercises—and parcels from home—kept the British prisoners sane and healthy during their long years of inactivity.

unified, and in some camps British prisoners, to their great surprise, found themselves even marched off to the nearest picture house for entertainment. During the winter of 1943-44, Field Marshal Keitel, in the name of the German High Command, issued a special order which stressed the necessity of treating Russian prisoners of war well. Though some of the worst methods, which had already caused the death of tens of thousands, seem to have been somewhat mitigated, the lot of most of the prisoners from the east was still so hard as to make many of them prefer any other status, however hateful otherwise. Thus, quite a number of Russian, Polish, Yugoslav and other prisoners were pressed into service in the German armed forces, where, of course, they formed very unwilling fighters for the German Fatherland—many of them later surrendered at the first opportunity.

That this experiment was made at all, and made on such a scale, shows clearly the gravest of all problems confronting the German war leaders towards the end of 1943. Lack of manpower. True, besides prisoners of war the number of foreign slave workers—at the beginning of the year some six millions—had, by indiscriminate methods of recruitment, been substantially increased. But this vast and—in the case of defeat—dangerous army of foreign nationals was not sufficient by a long way to fill all the gaps, let alone to free sufficient Germans for the task of defending the long perimeter of the "Fortress of Europe." Thus the end of the year found the German people in complete apathy facing another year of hopeless working and fighting.

camps than there were German prisoners in Allied camps. The scandalous shackling of British and Canadian prisoners who had been captured at Dieppe in 1942—allegedly a reprisal action—would most likely never have happened had not the balance in the number of prisoners been so much in the favour of Germany. This, however, ceased to be the case in 1943. After the surrender of Germany's African armies, German prisoners in Allied hands at one stroke vastly outnumbered British and American prisoners in Axis hands. Also after the surrender of Stalingrad and the

losses of the second winter campaign, there were now for the first time huge numbers of Germans in Russian hands.

From then on the treatment of prisoners of war, particularly those of British nationality, underwent a certain change. Until then there had been, on the one hand, "show camps" where prisoners had been allowed "privileges," and these had been given wide publicity in Germany, and, on the other, "reprisal camps" or camps where prisoners who had tried to escape were subjected to much harshest treatment. Now the standard was somewhat more

Diary of the War

MAY and JUNE 1943

May 1, 1943. U.S. heavy bombers raided St. Nazaire U-boat base. Port shelled for 75 mins. at night.

May 2. R.A.F. Mosquitoes attacked Thionville after flight of 600 miles (600 over enemy territory) at roof-top height.

May 3. Mateur captured by Allies (Tunisia). U.S. planes attacked Kiska (Aleutians) nine times.

May 4. Kyzmskaya (Kuban) captured by Red Army. New Japanese offensive S. of Yangtse. Concentrated night attack by R.A.F. on Dortmund.

May 5. Djebel Bou Aoukez captured by First Army (Tunisia).

May 6. Massicault captured by First Army (Tunisia). Austrians occupied Muho (New Guinea). Five attacks on Kiska and seven on Attu (Aleutians) by U.S. planes. Five U-boats sunk when attacking westbound Atlantic convoy.

May 7. Tunis, Ferryville, Bizerta and Pont du Fahs captured by Allies (Tunisia). Japanese cut Maungdaw-Buthidaung road (Burma). Heavy Allied air raids on Madang, Finsch Hafen and Muho (New Guinea).

May 8. Tehoumba and Djedeida captured (Tunisia). Withdrawal of Allied forces from Buthidaung (Burma).

May 9. Unconditional surrender in N.E. Tunisia.

May 10. Soliman and Grombaha occupied (Tunisia).

May 11. American forces landed on Attu (Aleutians). Mr. Churchill arrived in Washington.

May 11-12. Allies withdrew from Maungdaw (Burma).

May 12. Bomber Command dropped 1,500 tons of bombs by night on Duisburg-Ruhrort. Organized re-istance in all Tunisia ceased.

May 13. Last remaining elements in Tunisia surrendered. Pantelleria bombarded from the sea; heavy air attacks on Naples, Cagliari (Sardinia), Augusta (Sicily) and communications in the toe of Italy. Night attack by R.A.F. on Bochum.

May 14. Velsen (N. Holland), Kiel, Antwerp and Courtrai attacked by day by U.S. Army Eighth Air Force. Civitavecchia (Italy) and Palermo (Sicily) heavily bombed. Australian hospital ship "Centaur" torpedoed and sunk by Japanese; 268 lives lost.

May 17. Moehne and Eder dams (Ruhr area) breached by air attack.

May 18. Pantelleria heavily raided from the air. United Nations Food Conference opened at Hot Springs, Virginia (ended June 3).

May 19. Kiel and Flensburg attacked by U.S. heavy bombers.

May 20. Return to India of Brig. Wingate's Chindits reported.

May 21. Strong day air attacks on Wilhelmshaven and Emden.

May 22. Japanese bombers attack Chittagong (Bengal). Dissolution of Comintern announced from Moscow.

May 23. Bomber Command dropped over 2,000 tons of bombs on Dortmund by night. Three heavy air attacks on Pantelleria in five hours.

May 25. Port of R.A. ...

May 26. Allied ...

May 27. First Sixty ...

May 28. Heavy daylight attack on Leghorn by U.S. Fortresses based in Africa.

May 29. Heavy day attacks on U-boat bases of St. Nazaire and La Pallice. Over 1,500 tons dropped at night by R.A.F. on Wuppertal. Chittagong airfield (Bengal) attacked by Japanese bombers. All organized Japanese resistance on Attu collapsed.

May 30. Frequent German air raids on Leningrad. Daylight raid by 100 U.S. Fortresses on Naples. Chinese counter-offensive launched near Hupeh-Honan border. Dawn attack by Fortresses on Wewak (New Guinea). Talks between De Gaulle and Giraud began (Algiers).

May 31. Pantelleria bombed throughout the day by relays of bombers. Lae attacked by two waves of Liberators (New Guinea). Confirmed in London that French warships in Alexandria joined Allies.

June 1. Allied air offensive against Sardinia, Sicily and Pantelleria maintained. Allied warships bombarded Pantelleria.

June 2. Heavy night air attack on Naples; Pantelleria bombed by night and day. Germans raided Kursk with 500 planes; lost 162 (Russia).

June 3. 520 Soviet bombers (one lost) made heavy night attack on Orel. Pantelleria attacked many times from the air and bombarded from the sea. Chinese recaptured Itu and reached west bank of Yangtse. De Gaulle and Giraud reached agreement (Algiers).

June 4. Red Air Force heavily bombed enemy supply centres of Bryansk and Karachev. Sicily, Pantelleria and Italian mainland heavily bombed. Kungun (S. Hupeh) recaptured by Chinese.

June 5. U.S. Fortresses from N.W. Africa attacked Spezia. Pantelleria again attacked from air and sea. Mr. Churchill arrived back in London.

June 6. Night and day air attacks on Pantelleria. Wau aerodrome (New Guinea) dive-bombed by Japanese.

June 7. Pantelleria bombed from dawn to dusk. Composition of French Committee of National Liberation announced.

June 8. Pantelleria bombed and bombarded all day; leaflets dropped demanding unconditional surrender.

June 9. Main weight of Strategic and Tactical Air Forces against Pantelleria.

June 10. Entire weight of Strategic and Tactical Air Forces thrown against Pantelleria from dawn to dusk, Allied bombers "queuing up" to drop their

... New Britain bombed by ...

June 11. 200 U.S. Fortresses (eight ...

June 12. At night Bomber Command in great strength attacked Bochum, Lampedusa, heavily bombed and bombarded, surrendered at 5.30 p.m. Day and night air attacks on Sicily.

June 13. Two large formations of U.S. heavy bombers (24 lost) made unescorted attacks on Bremen and Kiel. Sicilian airfields bombed. Allied raid on Rabaul.

June 14. Bomber Command made a heavy night attack on Oberhausen.

June 15. Heavy bomber attacks on Sicilian airfields. Chinese announce recapture of Michitai, S.W. of Shensi. U.S. aircraft bombed Kiska (Aleutians).

June 16. 91 of 120 Japanese planes shot down over Guadalcanal for loss of six American planes (one pilot safe). Naples heavily bombed at night.

June 18. Strong force of U.S. heavy bombers attacked Sardinia and Sicily.

June 19. At night strong force of R.A.F. four-engined bombers attacked Schneider works, Le Creusot. 90-min. dawn air raid on Rabaul (New Britain).

June 20. At night R.A.F. Lancasters made heavy attack on Friedrichshafen. Messina heavily attacked (June 19-20). Japanese lost 24 of 48 aircraft sent to attack Darwin (Australia).

June 21. Over 700 R.A.F. heavies made shattering night attack on Krefeld. Heavy daylight attack by U.S. bombers on Naples. Lightnings shot down 23 out of 36 Zeros in air battles over Lae-Salamaua area (New Guinea).

June 22. Heavy daylight attacks by U.S. bombers on Huels, Antwerp and Rotterdam. Concentrated night attack by R.A.F. on Muelheim.

June 23. Short but sharp raid by 15 enemy planes on Hull. Spezia heavily bombed by same force of Lancasters which hit Friedrichshafen on June 20, on return journey from N. Africa.

June 24. R.A.F. Bombers in great strength raided Elberfeld.

June 25. Heavy night attack by R.A.F. on Bochum and Gelsenkirchen. Day and night attacks on targets in Sicily and Sardinia. U.S. bombers made six attacks on Kiska (Aleutians).

June 26. Lae airfield (New Guinea) heavily bombed by Allies without loss.

June 26-27. Concentrated 15-min. attack by R.A.F. on Naples.

June 28. Heavy attack on St. Nazaire U-boat base by U.S. Fortresses; night attack in great strength by British heavies on Cologne. Fierce attack on Leghorn by 100 U.S. Fortresses.

June 30. Palermo (Sicily) heavily bombed by U.S. Fortresses. U.S. Marines landed on Rendova (New Georgia); 121 Japanese aircraft shot down. American forces landed at Nassau Bay (New Guinea).

GERMANY'S EUROPEAN ALLIES WAVER

The year 1943 was an ominous one for Germany's satellites: Finland, Hungary, Rumania and Bulgaria. Russia's steady drive westward, the final defeat of the Axis in Africa, and the Allied invasion of Italy showed only too clearly that the chances of Axis victory were fading. Dr. F. Heymann here describes their efforts to disentangle themselves from their alliance with Germany. For the earlier history of the war in these countries, see Chapters 235 and 236

ALREADY in the closing stages of 1942 there could be no doubt that the Finnish people were tired of war. The question whether anything could be won by continuing the fight was answered early in 1943 by the Russian victories in general, and by the

FINLAND relief of Leningrad in particular. After the Russians retook the fortress of Schluesselburg on January 18, every chance of a combined Finno-German victory in northern Russia vanished, and with it the hopes of those who had dreamed of a Greater Finland to which Germany had promised the position of "the leading power in the North." However, there still seemed a chance that by going out of the war Finland might be left in full possession of the Karelian Isthmus which she had ceded to Russia in 1940 (see page 746). Many leading politicians hoped that this could be achieved simply by taking up a more passive attitude in the war against Russia.



PREMIER OF FINLAND

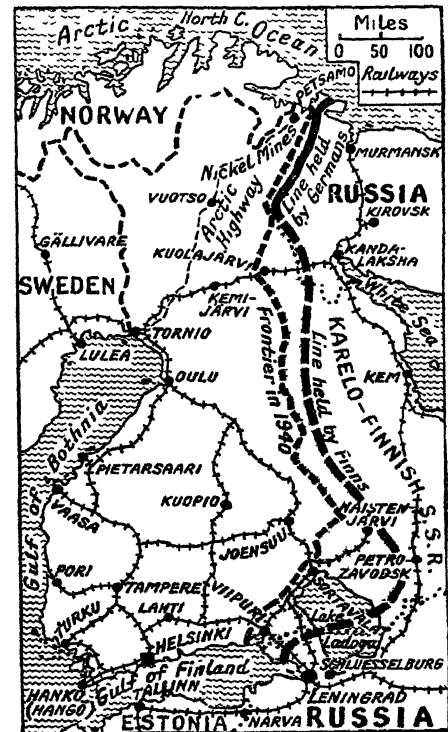
Professor Edwin Linkomies, who formed a new coalition government on March 4, 1943, in which all major parties from Conservatives to Social Democrats were represented. Its members included Mr. Vanio Tanner, a leading Social Democrat, who was Minister of Finance, and whose hatred of Russia had unfortunate repercussions for his country.

Photo, Black Star

After the re-election of Mr. Risto Ryti as President (February 15), the new Cabinet formed on March 4 by Professor Edwin Linkomies was again a coalition in which all major parties from Conservatives to Social Democrats were represented. The leading personality among Social Democrats was still Mr. Vanio Tanner, the Minister of Finance, who controlled the strong co-operative organization "Elanto," and was the most powerful man in the Finnish Labour movement. His violent Russophobia made him entirely blind to the fact that by helping Nazi Germany he was betraying everything his party had ever stood for. Much of what happened during the year in relation to the peace issue was due to his sinister influence.

The new Government was soon informed by the State Department in Washington that the United States was prepared to mediate between Finland and Russia. Instead of accepting this offer, the Finns referred the matter to Berlin. Ribbentrop, as was to be expected, forbade any move of the sort, and Finland obediently declined the American offer. Yet the Government seems to have believed that this would in no way affect the American attitude towards Finland, for great surprise was displayed when Washington withdrew the whole staff of the American legation in Helsinki, with the sole exception of the chargé d'affaires. Finnish public opinion, ill-informed about Finland's position in general, was shocked, and criticism of the Government's policy became much more outspoken.

A conference of the Trade Unions Council passed a resolution calling for the utmost effort by the Government to maintain good relations with the United States and Sweden and to preserve the goodwill towards Finland of the Danish and Norwegian peoples, oppressed by Finland's ally Germany. Public opinion was strong enough in these matters to force the Government to make representations to the German Government regarding the treatment of Norwegian students and Danish Jews. Finland, indeed, remained the only one of Germany's vassal states which never agreed to discriminate against its own small Jewish community.



SOVIET-FINNISH FRONT

The 1940 frontier, and the line held by the Finns at the end of 1943, are shown in this map. Although the Soviet capture of Schluesselburg and consequent relief of Leningrad in January 1943, ended Finnish hopes of expansion, Finland continued to evade recognition of the fact. The Russo-Finnish border before 1940 is shown in the map in page 754.

Public discussion on the peace issue continued all through the year. On August 20 a remarkable petition was submitted to President Ryti. It was signed by 33 prominent people from all Government parties except the Conservatives, and urged the President to investigate all possibilities of concluding a separate peace with Russia. That the petition had a strong backing in Parliament was shown in a secret debate on foreign policy in September, and the Government had to give the assurance that everything possible was being done to quit the war. But no steps were taken to fulfil this promise.

One of the reasons given for this passive attitude was that Finland depended on Germany for her food supplies. Actually this dependence was by no means one-sided. Two-thirds of



ENGLISH BOOKS IN FINLAND

However strong anti-Russian feeling may have been in Finland there was little anti-British or anti-American sentiment—a fact confirmed by this Finnish soldier browsing among English books in a bookshop of his homeland. The Finns indeed were very surprised when in 1943 the United States withdrew the staff of the American legation in Helsinki after Finland had refused U.S. mediation in the war with Russia.

Photo Black Star

Germany's supplies of nickel, one fourth of her molybdenum and one fifth of her copper—all three metals of high military importance—came from Finland,

together with huge quantities of timber. On balance, it is true, Finnish imports from Germany, among them about half of her grain supplies, were larger than her exports to Germany, and apart from Italy she was the only Axis state to be a debtor to Germany. But economic dependence on Germany was hardly a valid excuse for not breaking with her, as in the long run it was in the interest of the country to resume her old economic relations with the Western powers. Moreover the United States as well as Sweden had promised to help Finland in case German food deliveries were stopped, and even if it had taken some time to get that help through, there was no immediate danger of any grave scarcity of food as the 1943 harvest was much better than that of the year before had been. Not economic necessity, but the narrow political outlook and shortsightedness of her ruling politicians kept Finland in the war far beyond the end of 1943.

Events inside Hungary in 1943 were in some ways similar to those in Finland. Like the Finns, the Hungarians had realized, even at the beginning of the year, that by allying themselves

with Germany they had backed the wrong horse. It was mainly the grave losses, not far from utter annihilation, suffered by the Second Hungarian Army near Voronezh (January–February 1943 see page 2681) which effectively

...to play a further
...in Finland
...the measure of public
Hungary through the
engine
...much HUNGARY
...of

...the government than that in
Helsinki. Doubtless Hungary would
...to lead away from the
German alliance is much as any of the
other satellite states. Yet for geo-
graphic, political and to some extent,
economic reasons it was more difficult
for her than for the other vassals of
Germany to take this step. She had
made enemies of almost all her neigh-
bors—Czechs and Slovaks, Ruthenians
and Rumanians, Serbs and Croats. The
Germans had an easy access to Hun-
garian territory from many directions
and could always threaten—as they
occasionally did—to give Transylvania
back to Rumania.

Thus with their freedom of action
limited, the Regent Admiral Horthy
and Prime Minister Kallay tried at least
to conserve the Hungarian Army and
at the same time to win sympathy for
Hungary among the great Western
nations. Unlike Rumania Hungary
succeeded in recalling most of her armed
forces from Russia—only two divisions
remained, allegedly to fight partisans
behind the front line. At the same time
every opportunity was used by Hun-
garian politicians and journalists to
stress that Hungary had really been



REGENT OF HUNGARY AT HITLER'S HEADQUARTERS

Admiral Nicholas Horthy, Regent of Hungary, with Ribbentrop, German Foreign Minister, Keitel, Hitler's Chief of Staff, and Bormann, Deputy Leader of the Nazi Party, during his visit to Hitler's G.H.Q. on the eastern front on April 16-18, 1943. The official German communique issued stated, 'The Fuehrer and the Regent expressed their firm determination to continue the war against Bolshevism and its Anglo-American allies unerringly until final victory is won.' Horthy maintained that the words 'Anglo-American allies' were inserted after he had signed the statement, and refused to agree to this addition.

Photo, Keystone

forced into the war but she was a torch bearer of Western and Italian culture and that she wanted nothing better than to live in peace—of course keeping all the spoils she had taken from her neighbours.

For the first few months of the year the Government thought that Hungary's case could be strengthened in the eyes of the United Nations by giving

Small Farmers' Party Demands Peace the democratic opposition in the Diet some opportunity of freely expressing their views.

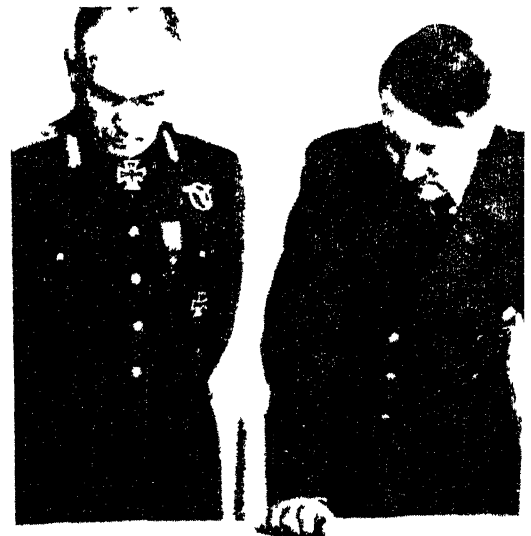
This was used to a considerable extent by the small Social Democratic Party and the Liberal Group led by the Deputy M. Ressay, as well as by the much larger Party of small farmers, some of whose deputies openly asked for peace, social justice and land reform.

Soon, however, Germany tried to stop this 'softening up' of Hungary's home front. In April Admiral Horthy was invited to see Hitler at Berchtesgaden. Though he refused to send more divisions to the Eastern front, it was much more difficult to decline some of Germany's political demands. Hitler asked that Hungary's Prime Minister should state, before a plenary session of the Diet that Hungary was firmly resolved to fight to the end on Germany's side and never to conclude a separate peace. To strengthen the pro-German wing of the Government Hitler proposed that Horthy should give a prominent Cabinet post to M. Imredy, the former Prime Minister who had always proved to be Nazi-

friendly. In the end, however, it was not quite clear what the chances of this kind of compromise were. In a letter to Horthy, Benito Mussolini advised that if the Government went to such lengths it would have difficulty with Parliament and in order to free himself, Kallay proposed Parliament indefinitely.

The double game this played by the Kallay Government became more difficult when by Mussolini's fall Hungary lost her traditional protector. Until the end her relations with Italy had been closer than those with Germany and Hungary, where a professional diplomat M. Gheczy, had just been appointed Foreign Minister, did not recall her legation from Italy even after that country's surrender to the Allies. Only German pressure made her recognize the puppet 'Fascist Republic' as well.

Some attempts were made to show a more benevolent attitude towards some of the millions of foreign nationals who had come under Hungarian rule between 1938 and 1941. Comparatively best treated were those who had last become Hungarian subjects—the Serbs in the Bačka. The Slovaks had more complaints, which were often voiced in the Bratislava press. Treatment of Rumanians in Transylvania was worse, as attempts were made to prove the Hungarian national character of the country by 'Hungarizing' it quickly—one of the reasons which, as well as corresponding Rumanian measures



RUMANIA'S DICTATOR

Marshal Ion Antonescu, dictator of Rumania, with Hitler during the conference to which the Rumanian leader was summoned at the Fuehrer's headquarters on April 12-13, 1943. The Rumanian people will wage the fight side by side with the peoples of the Axis Powers until final victory, said the communique issued on this occasion.

Photo Associated Press

against Hungarians, led to incessant friction between the two allies."

Worst of all, however, was the treatment of the people of Subcarpathian Ruthenia, Czechoslovakia's easternmost province 'conquered' by Hungary in March 1939. Hungarian military and civil authorities did everything in their power to crush

Brutal Treatment of Ruthenia

the spirit of those people. Hundreds were executed, thousands thrown into the concentration camps of Nyiregyhaza and Garany, but many more thousands went into the mountains and forests to form partisan units. Whereas in Hungary proper the treatment of the Jewish middle class had slightly improved in order to impress the English-speaking Nations—one prominent industrialist, M. Chorin, had even been restored to his seat in the Upper House—the masses of poor Jews in Ruthenia were treated exactly in the same way as those under German rule, tens of thousands of them being deported to Poland.

Economically, Hungary was less affected by the war and by forced exports to Germany than her neighbours in the east and south-east. The bad situation of the smallholders was not, in general, due to the war. One half of the soil belonged to 8,000 people—the greater part of it to only 526 magnates—whereas no less than 4,400,000 peasants had to share the other half. There was some unrest when the Government tried to collect specified amounts of produce, calculated



THIS U.S. BOMBER HIT PLOESTI

An American Liberator forced down in Rumania after the heavy first raid on that centre of Rumanian oil production on August 1, 1943 (see illus., page 2666), was an object of great interest to the Rumanian officials here seen examining it where it drove its nose into the ground as it landed. Some 40 to 50 out of 177 bombers were lost altogether on this occasion, but it was estimated that most of Ploesti's refineries had been put out of action for some time at least.



RUMANIAN GUN CREW IN RUSSIA

The crew of this anti-tank gun near the Black Sea port of Novorossiisk were a small unit among the thousands of men Rumania was compelled to contribute to the armies Germany threw against Russia. Two Rumanian divisions at least were among the forces sacrificed by Germany at Stalingrad, and Rumanian troops fought in the Crimea too. By her defection to the Axis, Rumania gained the doubtful prize of Bessarabia.

Photo, Associated Press

in "Wheat-Units," from every one of them without regard to the actual result of his harvest. Altogether there was little left, towards the end of the year, of the "liberalism" displayed previously, and arrests not only of Communists but also of Social Democrats and other "unreliable elements" did much to lift the "democratic" mask from the face of a dictatorial and semi-Fascist regime.

For some time Marshal Antonescu, Rumania's dictator, had successfully played the strong man. In reality, however, the "Conducator" (a Rumanian translation of

RUMANIA the Italian "Duce" and the German "Fuehrer")

had to play a very difficult game to keep himself in power. To a large extent he had to rely on Germany and the German army to maintain his grip on the country; but at the same time he knew that there was a limit to what he could exact from the Rumanian people without risking an open revolt. Thus he kept trying to play off one side against the other.

But the Germans were equally masters of this game, and they had some tricks ready with which to bring pressure to bear on Antonescu. One was the ultra-fascist "Iron Guard," whose leader, Horia Sima, was still under German protection though a Rumanian court had condemned him, in absence, to hard labour for life.

Early in January 1943, after Antonescu had ventured to block some exports to Germany on account of the huge and ever-mounting German clearing debt, the Germans staged a revolt of the "Iron

Guard" and German troops had to help the Government to restore order in Bukarest, thus making Antonescu much more conscious of his dependence on his masters in Berlin. There is no doubt that the same purpose was served by an interview which Antonescu had with Hitler on January 10. The "Conducator" had tried to persuade Germany that Rumania could not afford to sacrifice an ever-growing part of her army in the fight against Russia. Yet he yielded to German pressure by consenting that those divisions at the front which had lost no more than a quarter of their effectives should once more be filled up by drawing on reserves and new conscripts while the divisions with heavier losses were to be formed into a smaller number of new units. As for maintaining full deliveries of Rumanian produce to Germany, the Minister of National Economy, M. Fintescu, was replaced by M. Dobre, who was a willing tool in the hands of the German Minister, Killinger, and accepted all his demands.

By deciding for complete subservience to Germany, the dictator had to turn more strongly against all those elements which were against his policy, partly out of real democratic conviction and partly because they could not forgive the Antonescu regime for ceding northern Transylvania to Rumania's arch enemy, Hungary. Anti-Government and anti-German demonstrations, disturbances, acts of sabotage, and even occasional fighting, occurred again in parts of southern Transylvania and Wallachia. There was open agitation against sending more troops to Russia. The High

Command thereupon issued an order threatening with severe penalties any public criticism of military and political measures, any listening to enemy broadcasts, and any other hampering of the war effort. As quite a large number of civil servants and other public officials were suspected of "unreliability," a purge was carried out in June, some of the officials being merely dismissed while others were arrested. The persecution of Jews was also stepped up again.

The whole basis of this policy, however, was shaken when, from July onwards, the Russian armies swept forward on the central and southern fronts. The Russian offensive had only just got into its stride when the Government de-

Effects of the Russian Offensive

clared that Rumania had no annexationist intentions, that it fought Russia only to preserve the independence and freedom of the Rumanian state, and that the country beyond the Dniester—which in 1941 had been annexed as the province of "Transnistria"—was "only temporarily occupied." When in autumn the Kuban bridge-head, held by German and Rumanian troops, was lost and the Russians gained a foothold in the Crimea, Rumanian officials in "Transnistria" began to quit the country in a sort of panic flight, and with them went the "Governor," M. Alexianu, who for some time had exercised a most arbitrary rule over this part of the Ukraine from his palace in Odessa.

The economic situation deteriorated considerably in 1943. Prices went up steadily: in October 1943 the price of potatoes in Bukarest was three times as high as in 1939, of eggs, onions and maize flour six times, butter seven, milk and cheese eight, wheat flour 10, beef 11, brown bread 14, cloth 16 and shoes 20 times as high as in 1939. The average level of necessities stood about 10 times as high. Wages for skilled industrial workers had in the meantime risen, though not enough to equal the rise in prices. All other salary and wage earners had their standard of living cut down pitifully, and bad distribution made things worse. Though one of Europe's richest agricultural countries, Rumania was forced to introduce three meatless days every week.

Towards the end of the year the fears that had led to the mass flight from "Transnistria" proved to be justified, as the Russians broke the Dnieper line and drew near the frontiers of Bessarabia. This gave a stronger impetus to all the forces opposed to the war, among whom the leading figure was still Julius Manin, the great leader of the Transylvanian

peasantry, whom neither Antonescu nor the Germans had dared to touch (*see* *illus.*, page 2343). Hopes were revived, too, that by breaking away from Germany Rumania might regain the whole of Transylvania. On December 1, the 25th anniversary of the annexation of Transylvania in 1918, great mass demonstrations were held in the capital and all over the country at which resolutions were passed declaring Rumania's right to the whole province.

Bulgaria was, in 1943, the only one of Hitler's vassal states whose armies had not bled on Russian soil. Though proclaiming complete

BULGARIA solidarity with Germany in her fight to save Europe from Bolshevism, the Bulgarian Government continued to refuse to go to war against Russia, as there could be no doubt that, being strongly Russophil by an overwhelming majority, Bulgarian officers and soldiers would mutiny or desert rather than fight in the East.

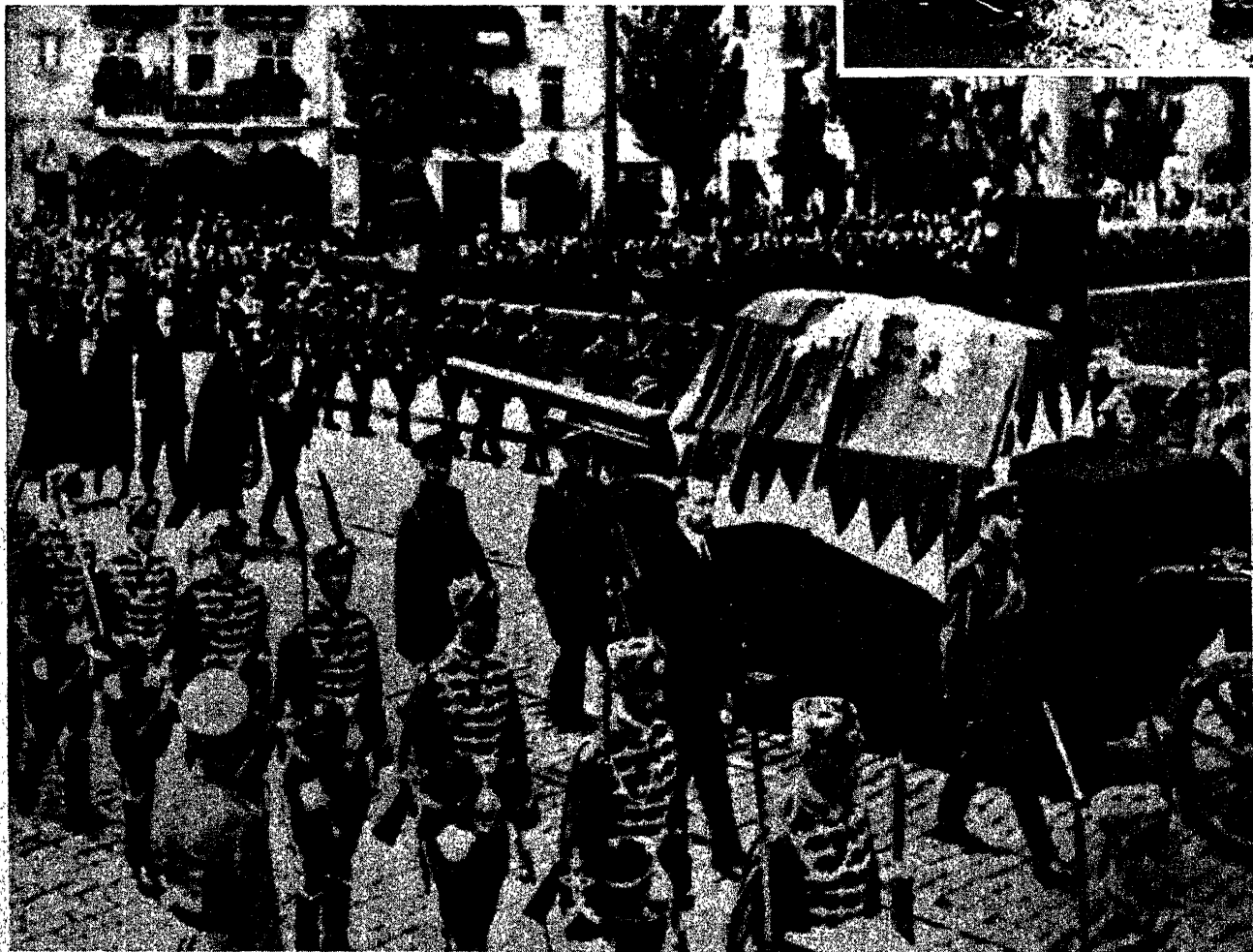
Short of open warfare, however, the Government of King Boris and Prime Minister Filoff did everything to help the Germans in the East, first by allowing Bulgaria's ports Varna and Burgas to be used as bases by German Black Sea naval units, and secondly by sending occupation troops into new stretches of Greek and Yugoslav territory, particularly into Serbia, thereby relieving German troops for use against Russia.

Not satisfied with garrisoning the occupied territory of her neighbours, Bulgaria attempted to effect a rapid denationalization of those parts of Thrace, Macedonia and Serbia which, it was hoped by the ruling clique, would become Bulgarian territory after the war. Expulsion of Greeks from parts of Thrace, and attempts to settle Bulgarian peasants in their place, were continued ruthlessly, even after the declaration, on March 24, of the British Government that Britain regarded

STATE VISIT—STATE FUNERAL

King Boris of Bulgaria, first of the Axis satellite rulers to visit Hitler in the spring of 1943, is believed to have met the Fuehrer again in August, when Hitler was reported to have adopted a threatening attitude. The King's sudden death on August 28 following this meeting gave rise to rumours that he had been murdered. Right, Hitler greets King Boris on March 31. Below, the catafalque in which, attended by Marshal Keitel and Admiral Raeder, the body of King Boris was borne to burial in Sofia.

Photos, Keystone ; Sport & General



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Growing Unrest

of ex-civon who
meat (the war always ch...
Bolshevik activity) did nothing to
relieve the tension. Opposition grew
especially strong in the Army where
groups of officers had long belonged
to an organization called Zveno, also
known as the Military League.
Though it had Fascist leanings it was



BULGARIA'S NEW RULERS

According to the constitution of Bulgaria, the King has the right to nominate three persons to serve on the Regency Council, but no will was found after Boris's death, and on September 9 the Sobranje (Grand National Council) approved of Prince Kyril (uncle of the new king), Prof Bogdan Filoff (Prime Minister) and Gen. Michoff (War Minister) to act as a Regency Council during the king's minority. Here the Regents are being sworn in. Top, the new king, six-year-old Simeon II, with men of the Bulgarian forces. Photos, Keystone Sport & General

at the same time Russophil, and its main representatives never trusted the King and his opportunist policy. The King's position had never been fully secure. He was probably far from enthusiastic about the alliance with Germany, but he had become the prisoner of the web of political intrigues which he himself had helped to spin. Most of the unquestioned popularity which he had enjoyed with the Bulgarian peasantry in the 30s had gone. Yet despite all his grave mistakes and the

crowning blunder of destroying all chances of understanding between Bulgaria and her neighbours, his was a steadying influence in the turmoil of Bulgarian politics, and the situation became even more chaotic when, on August 28, Boris unexpectedly died. The circumstances of the King's death remained somewhat mysterious. The official statement described the causes as double pneumonia and cerebral congestion owing to an obstruction of the left artery of the heart, but suspicion

it the King had been
It is still not quite clear
I had visited Hitler
immediately before he
had done. One rumour
asked by the Germans
that he intended
to withdraw from the Axis, another
was that he had been the victim
of oppositional groups who resented the
German rule tolerated if not established,
by Boris.

As Crown Prince Simeon was only six, a Regency had to be set up. Boris had left no will, or at least it was said that no will was found, though according to the constitution he had had the right to nominate three persons to serve on the Regency Council and was believed to have done so. It would have appeared only natural that Boris's widow Joanna, the new King's mother, should belong to this Council. Joanna, however, was a daughter of the King of Italy and it seems that the Germans opposed her nomination as they feared that the Queen might follow the policy of Italy (who on September 3 concluded an armistice with the Allies). The Council as it was actually nominated seemed to exclude this danger altogether. To it belonged the late King's brother, Prince Kyril who had always been regarded as being wholly under German influence, the Prime Minister Filoff whose policy had led the country right into the German camp and the Minister of War, General Michoff, who belonged to the more Germanophil wing of the Army.

The Regency Council appointed the former Minister of Finance, Dr. Bojloff, as Prime Minister. His Government showed no intention of deviating from the policy of their predecessors. There was one small exception. The persecution of the Jews, which owing to German pressure had been in full progress since May 1943, had proved to be exceedingly unpopular. Sharp protests were launched by the Archbishop of Sofia and the Bishop of Plovdiv at the deportation of thousands of Jews from the occupied territories, and the Government eventually declared that no Jews of Bulgarian nationality were to be deported.

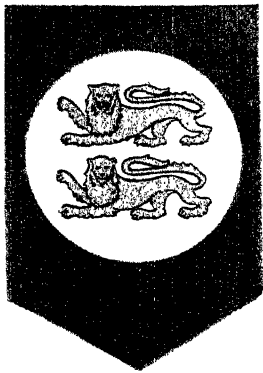
Opposition in Army circles and general unrest again grew stronger towards the end of the year, when a number of bombing raids on the railway yards of Sofia and other targets caused panic in the capital. Many civil servants fled to the country. The Bulgarian people realized that, even by avoiding war with Russia, Bulgaria could not hope to avoid the destruction of the war into which she had been dragged by greedy and irresponsible rulers.



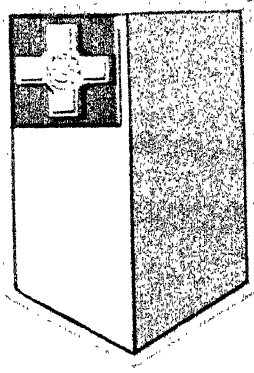
FIELD-MARSHAL THE RT. HON. JAN CHRISTIAAN SMUTS, P.C., C.H., K.C.

Leader against Britain in the South African War of 1899-1902, the great Boer soldier Smuts became reconciled to the conqueror after the Peace of Vereeniging, and fought for Britain in the First Great War of 1914-18. When the Second Great War began he was Prime Minister of South Africa and, despite strong elements of opposition, led the Union to throw in its lot with Great Britain again. His policy was strikingly confirmed by the elections of 1943 (see page 2806). Points from an important speech he made during his second war visit to Britain appear in page 2819.

Direct colour photograph by Pictorial Press



Cyprus



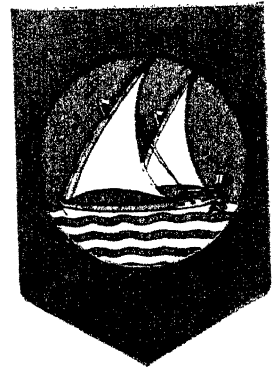
Malta



Palestine



Gibraltar



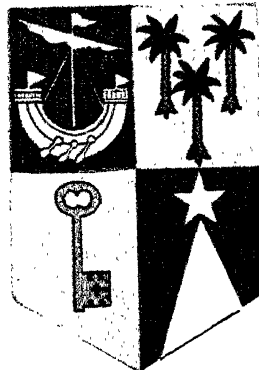
Aden



Somaliland



Western Samoa



Mauritius



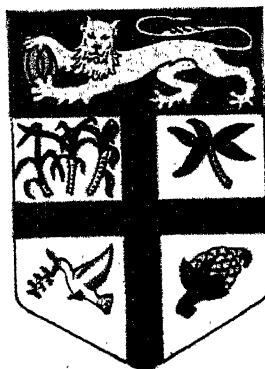
Ceylon



Hong Kong



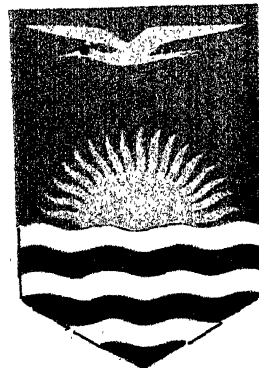
Seychelles



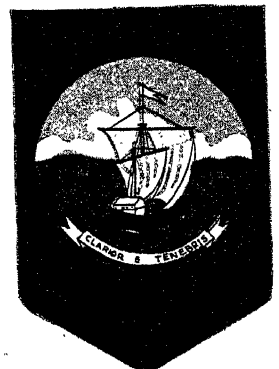
Fiji



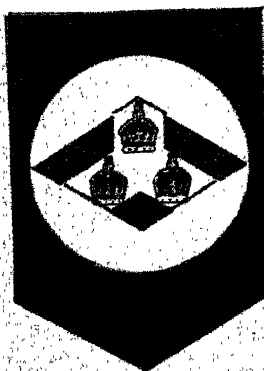
West Pacific Islands



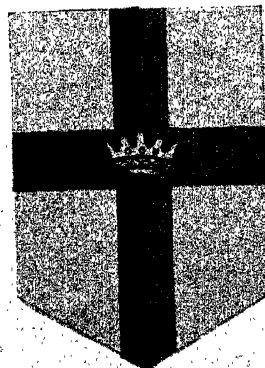
Gilbert and Ellice Islands



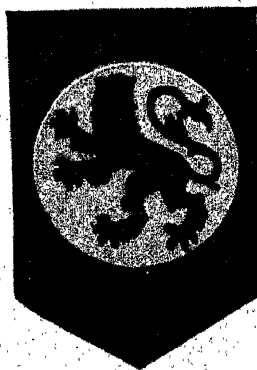
Grenada



Straits Settlements



Sarawak



British North Borneo



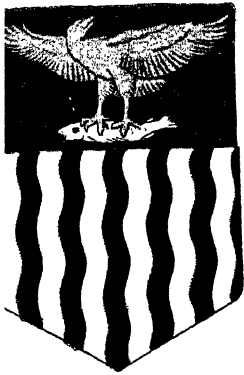
Brunei



Federated Malay States

THREE YEARS AGO WE STOOD ALONE. . . . IN THAT DARK, TERRIFIC AND ALSO GLORIOUS HOUR, WE RECEIVED FROM ALL—

That testing hour of June 1940, referred to by the Prime Minister in the speech from which this quotation is taken, was a triumphant vindication of the British Empire. Self-governing Dominions and Crown Colonies alike rallied more firmly to the support of the Mother Country. The coats-of-arms shown in this and the opposite page are of 40 among the Crown Colonies, Protectorates and Mandated Territories of the British Empire. Britain administers—



Northern Rhodesia



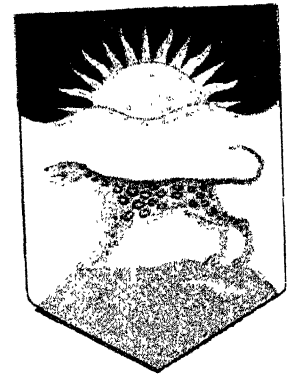
Tanganyika



Kenya



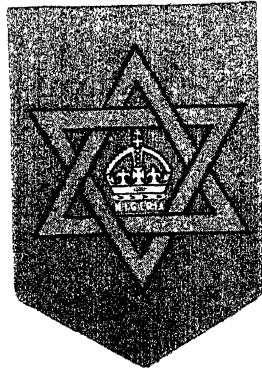
Uganda



Nyasaland



Gambia



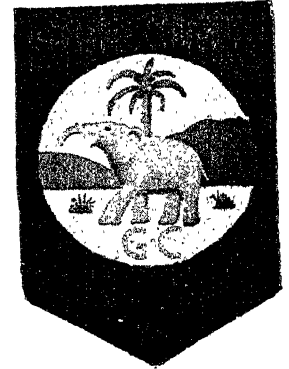
Nigeria



Southern Rhodesia



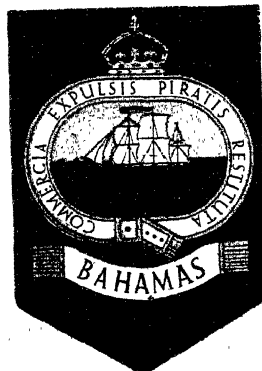
Sierra Leone



Gold Coast



Trinidad



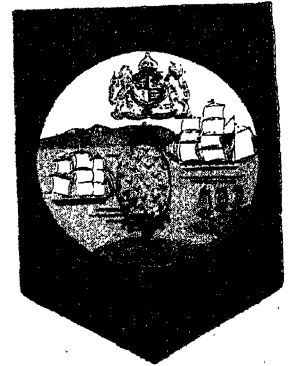
Bahamas



Bermuda



Barbados



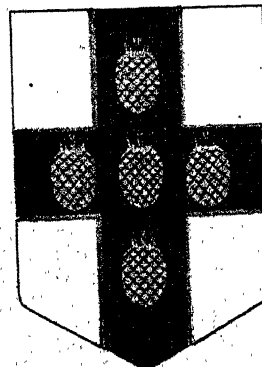
Leeward Islands



Windward Islands



British Honduras



Jamaica

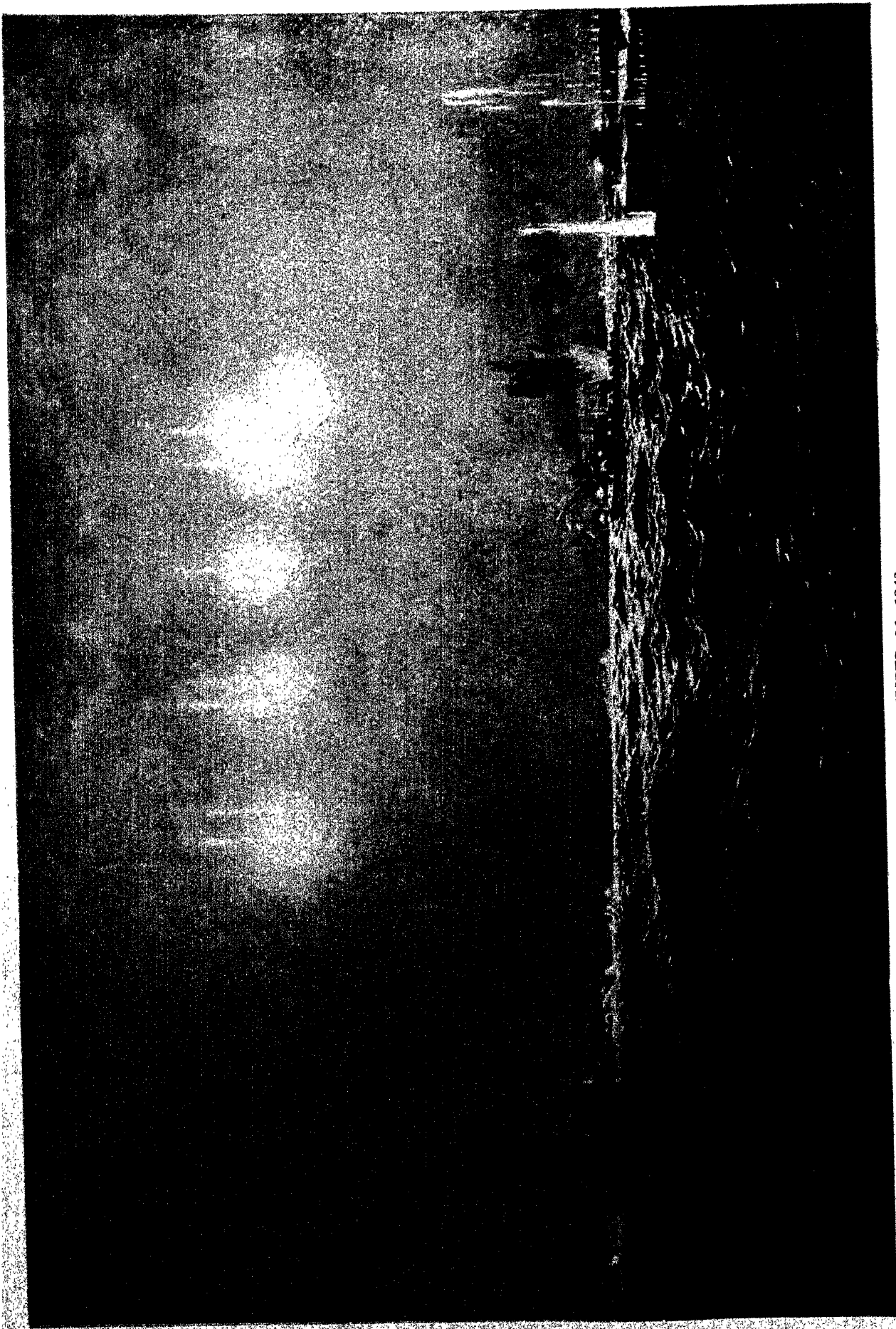


British Guiana



Falkland Islands

PARTS OF HIS MAJESTY'S DOMINIONS . . . THE ASSURANCE THAT WE WOULD ALL GO DOWN OR COME THROUGH TOGETHER
 —areas in all the seven seas. Some have belonged to her for centuries: Elizabeth issued a Charter to trade in Gambia in 1588 (though that country was not recognized as British till 1783). Most of the areas represented, however, were acquired during the 19th century. The mandated territories (Palestine, for instance) came under British administration after the First Great War. For the record of the Crown Colonies' part during 1943, see Chapter 281



THE SINKING OF 'SCHARNHORST,' DECEMBER 26, 1943
The German battleship 'Scharnhorst,' long a threat to British shipping, was at last sunk on December 26, 1943 (see Chapter 284). Her loss left the German navy with only six heavy units. 'Scharnhorst,' 26,000 tons, was completed in 1939. She had a speed of 27 knots and carried nine 11-in. guns, twelve 5.9-in. guns, and 30 others. She helped to sink H.M. aircraft-carrier 'Glorious,' off Narvik in 1940, claimed the sinking of 22 merchantmen in the Atlantic from January to March 1941, lay up in Brest till February 1942, when she escaped through the Straits of Dover with 'Gneisenau' and 'Prinz Eugen.' She joined the main German fleet in Altenfjord in March 1942
From the painting by Charles Fears, Crown Copyright

THE DOMINIONS IN THEIR 5th YEAR OF WAR

Though during 1943 the war dominated life in the Dominions as elsewhere, home affairs and political developments, particularly in South Africa and Australia, were of outstanding interest. The following brief review records the chief points in these domestic happenings and describes the amazing production feats and splendid overseas service of these partners in the British Commonwealth. It takes up the story from Chapter 247

THE outstanding public event of the year 1943 in Canada—the series of international consultations held in Quebec during August—was of world importance. Mr. Churchill, accompanied by Lord Leathers and the British Chiefs of Staff, reached Canada on August 10. Next day

CANADA a joint session of the British and Canadian War Cabinets surveyed “the field of the war” and questions of special interest to the two Governments. Mr. Churchill spent August 12–14 with President Roosevelt at Hyde Park (N.Y.), returning to Quebec on the 15th, where military discussions were going forward between British, U.S., and Canadian services chiefs. On August 17 President Roosevelt, accompanied by Mr. Harry Hopkins, arrived. Next day they were joined by Mr. Eden, Mr. Brendan Bracken, and Sir Alexander Cadogan, Permanent Secretary of the British Foreign Office. Discussions continued.

A Press statement issued by Mr. Bracken on August 19 said, “Our plans are to bomb, burn, and ruthlessly destroy in every way available to us the people responsible for creating this war”; and the arrival on August 22 of Dr. T. V. Soong, Chinese Foreign Minister (who had just been on an official visit to Britain: see page 2698), made it clear that Japan was one of the people whose fate was being settled. The immediate outcome of a meeting on August 23 of Mr. Churchill, President Roosevelt, Dr. Soong, and Mr. Hopkins was the setting up next day of the South East Asia Command.

Mr. Anthony Eden, British Foreign Secretary, visited Ottawa on March 30, after conferring with President Roosevelt in Washington, and discussed with the Prime Minister and the Cabinet shipping, political and economic problems, post-war relief of liberated peoples, and other matters of urgent interest to the British and Canadian Governments. In the course of a speech he made to a joint session of the Commons and Senate, he referred to the achievements of the Canadian forces on land, at sea, and in the air, and to the distinctive part played by the Dominion in the Battle of the Atlantic. He had

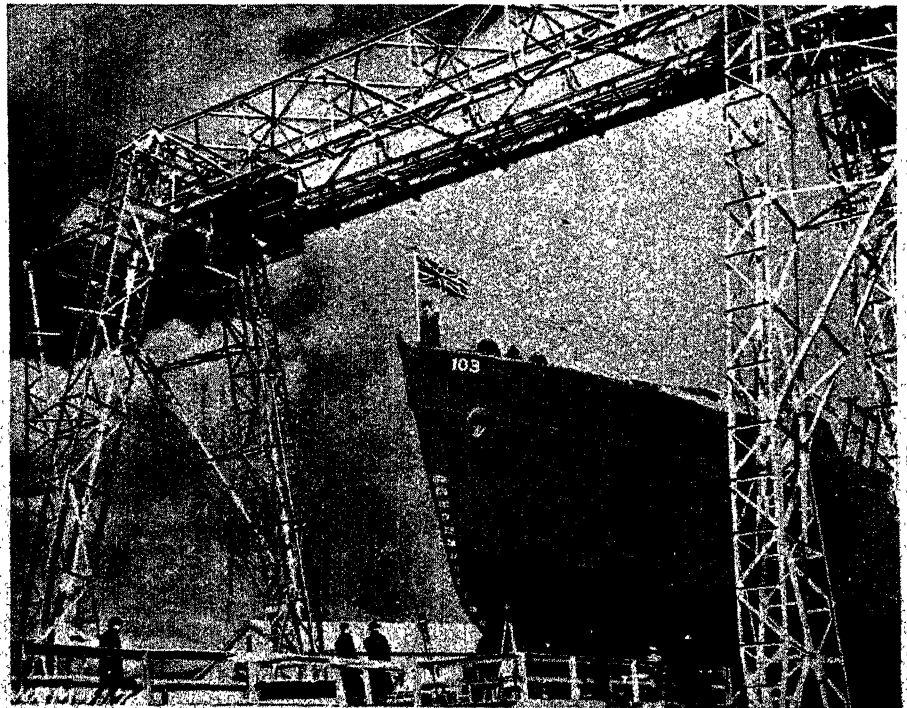
some special words, spoken in French, for the French Canadian members on the hope of France’s regeneration. The intimate collaboration of Canada in the war policies of Great Britain and the U.S.A. was emphasized when the Prime Minister went to Washington in May to join in the discussions during Mr. Churchill’s visit to the President.

General Penaranda, President of Bolivia, arrived in Canada on May 12 for a short official visit at the invitation of the Government: he was the first South American president to visit Canada during his term of office. Another important visitor was Mme. Chiang Kai-shek (see illus., page 2698). The Government announced its recognition of the French Committee of National Liberation in August, General George P. Vanier being appointed Canadian representative at Algiers.

The elections held in the Province of Ontario on August 3 resulted in the

decisive defeat of the Liberal Government of the province, three ministers losing their seats. The Progressive Conservatives, who had tested the electorate on a provincialscale for the first time since remoulding their policy, headed the poll with 39 seats (out of 90), and formed the new Cabinet.

The Budget, introduced on March 2, provided for the collection of Income Tax on the “pay-as-you-earn” system, following discussions of the method in London with British Treasury officials. Canada budgeted for \$4,890,000,000 for war expenses in the year ending March 31, 1944, including a contribution to United Nations supplies to the value of \$1,000,000,000. (The year before, she had given a similar sum as a free gift to Britain.) Direct taxation raised eight times as much in 1942–43 as in the last full fiscal year before the war.



CANADA BUILDS FOR THE BATTLE OF THE ATLANTIC

From shipbuilding yards at Sorel, Province of Quebec, this corvette, H.M.C.S. “La Malbaie,” and seven other ships—four minesweepers and three corvettes—were christened at the same ceremonies as they left the slips to be completed and sent out, manned by British and Canadian seamen, to take part in the Battle of the Atlantic. During 1943, 150 cargo and 100 naval vessels were produced in Canadian shipbuilding yards.

Photo, Sport & General



Mr Winston Churchill Prime Minister of Britain inspired one of the wildest displays of enthusiasm ever seen in old Quebec when he rode through the streets in an open car with Mr Mackenzie King Prime Minister of Canada on August 23 1943 during the Quebec Conference. President Roosevelt at the end of the conference visited Ottawa. He is seen (right) addressing a joint session of the Canadian House of Commons and Senate.

Canada's war effort in 1913 was as stern as the speech dealing with it which Mr Mackenzie King delivered at the Canadian Club of Toronto on

**Canadians
on War
Service**

of 1943 of Canada's population of 11,000,000, 1,100,000, including more than 260,000 women, were engaged on war work in some form, and Canada had become the fourth largest producer of war supplies among the United Nations. The strength of the Forces was more than 750,000, including over 40,000 women. The Army had increased to more than 470,000 at the outbreak of war it had numbered only 4,500. Canadians served in Britain, on raids at Spitzbergen and Dieppe, in Newfoundland, Iceland, Hongkong, the West Indies, Bermuda, and in Kiska, one of the Aleutian Islands, while the Canadian First Division took part in the Sicily campaign during July and August, and the landings in Italy. Engineering units built roads in Alaska and Britain, and fortifications in Gibraltar, a Forestry Corps operated in Britain.

outbreak of war to over 74,000 men and more than 700 craft, of which 250 were ocean going combat ships (destroyers, corvettes etc) About 40 per cent of the naval forces engaged in the Battle of the Atlantic were Canadian, her Navy co operated in the defence of the North Pacific Coast, and took part from the end of 1942 in operations in the Mediterranean

As to air strength, at the end of 1943 Canada was the fourth greatest air power among the United Nations. Its Air Force had increased from a pre war total of 4,000 to about 200 000 by November 1943. Squadrons overseas operated under the direction of R.A.F. Bomber Command, Coastal Command, Fighter Command, Allied Expeditionary Air Force, Mediterranean Command, and India Command. The R.C.A.F. also carried out anti submarine patrols from North American bases. By the end of 1943 the British Commonwealth Air Training Plan, administered by the Canadian Government, which bore half the cost, had turned out more than 86 000 air crew graduates, the majority of whom were Canadians.

Canada's war products were distributed as follows 30 per cent to Canadian Forces at home and abroad

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By December 1945 Canada had produced a total of 500,000 rounds of heavy ammunition and 3,000,000,000 rounds of machine gun ammunition, besides great quantities of aerial bombs, trench mortar bombs and anti tank mines. Machine guns and small arms production showed a 92 per cent increase over 1942, small arms ammunition a 30 per cent increase and guns a 15 per cent increase. 35,000 army rifles and 6,000 Sten guns were turned out each month. Naval and army gun units including field anti aircraft, tank and anti-tank guns totalling 80,000 had been produced.

This amazing record was eclipsed by Canada's shipbuilding feats. In 1939 the Dominion had almost no ship building industry. On September 18 1943, the 620th Canadian built vessel was launched.

Canada's Shipbuilding Feats

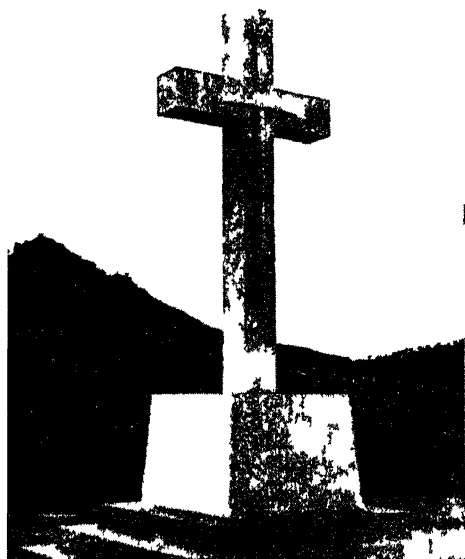
Of these 620 215 were cargo vessels, and 405 were escort and other naval types. During the first three years of the war nearly 10,000 merchant and naval vessels were repaired in Canada. Nine types of aircraft were produced—among them Anson, Cornell, and Norseman trainers, Lancaster, Mosquito, and Hell Diver service planes, and the Skymaster transport. The first Canadian built Lancaster and Mosquitoes arrived at a British airfield in the early part of August. Some 10,000 military aircraft had been produced by the end of 1943. Before the war not 40 planes were produced a year.

The war efforts of Canada and the United States were linked through the following committees: Permanent Joint Board on Defence, Materials Coordinating Committee, Joint Economic Committee, Joint War Production Committee, Joint Agricultural Committee, and Joint War Aid Committee. Canada was also a member of the Combined Production and Resources Board with the United Kingdom and the United States, and in October 1943 was admitted to full membership on the Combined Food Board with the United Kingdom and the United States. Her food exports were of vital importance to Britain. At the end of 1943 she was sending 10 per cent of Britain's total



FROM VANCOUVER TO SICILY

These three men all from Vancouver were among the assault troops of the Canadian First Army who landed on Pachino Peninsula in Sicily on July 10 1943. Some account of the gallant part the Canadians played in the conquest of the island is given in Chapter 283. Left: memorial to men of this Dominion who fell in Sicily carved by Italian craftsmen from Syracuse white limestone and erected near the mountain town of Agira captured by the Canadians in August.



The status of Newfoundland came up for discussion in the Canadian Parliament in July, when the Prime Minister replied to a

NEWFOUND- suggestion that New
LAND foundland should be invited to enter the Dominion as its 10th province. "Any discussions," he said, in respect of the possible bringing of Newfoundland into

the confederation ought to be initiated on the part of the Newfoundland people rather than by members of this House."

The suggestion had been induced by growing restlessness in Newfoundland over her status, though she remained a Dominion in name, her self-government was in abeyance, her affairs since 1934 having been administered by the Governor, acting on the advice of a

egg supply, 25 per cent of her cheese, 35 per cent of her canned fish, 25 per cent of her wheat, and 60 per cent to 80 per cent of her bacon.

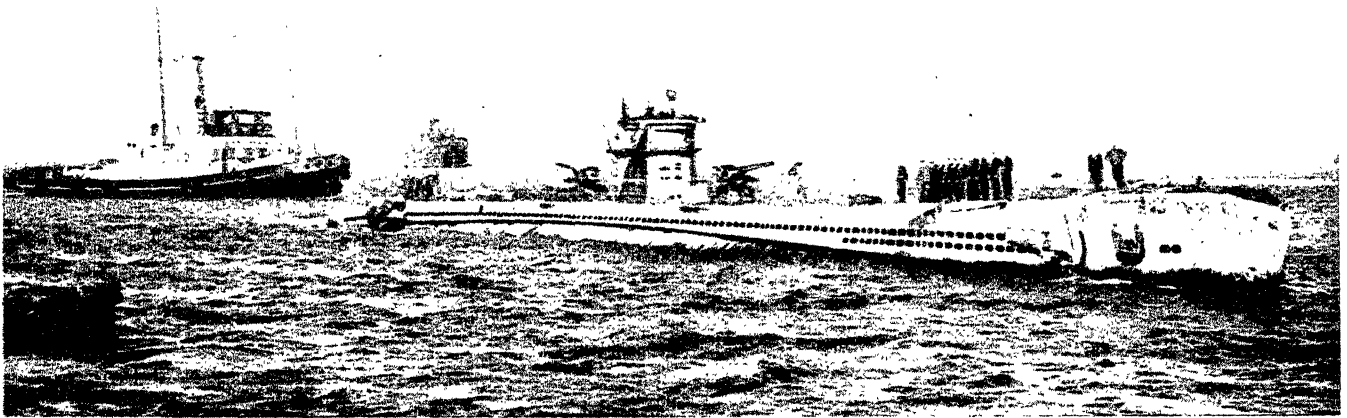
That Canada was thinking in terms of post war development as well as of wartime effort was evidenced by two things in particular: the position she took on post war air plans, and the wide interest shown in the Marsh Plan. In the House of Commons Mr. Mackenzie King stated on April 2 that the Government strongly favoured a policy of international collaboration in air transport, and was prepared to take part in international negotiations for that purpose—a policy advocated by Canada's delegation at the Empire Air Conference held in London in October. The Marsh Plan, otherwise "Canada's Beveridge Report," was a national security scheme submitted on March 17 by Dr. Leonard C. Marsh to the newly appointed Parliamentary Committee on Social Insurance. Its aim was to ensure a basic minimum income for every Canadian, irrespective of occupation, sex, or age, its estimated cost, 225,000,000 dollars a year.



NEWFOUNDLANDERS WITH THE EIGHTH IN ITALY

The 166th (Newfoundland) Army Field Regiment, R.A., after manning heavy coast defences in Norfolk (see illus., page 1182), went into action alongside the French in North Africa on April 1, 1943. They fought through to the end in Tunisia, and, after rest, joined the Eighth Army in Italy. This group of them is waiting to cross the Sangro River.

Photo British Official



ITALIAN SUBMARINE PUTS IN AT DURBAN

After the surrender of Italy in September 1943, when the main Italian fleet sailed to Malta, Italian submarines at sea put in to the nearest Allied harbour. Here, the Ammiraglio Cagni, one of the largest submarines in the world, moves to her berth at Durban, South Africa. A black flag, agreed signal of surrender, flies from her periscope. She had been at sea 83 days. Her armament consisted of two 3'9-in. guns, four machine-guns, and fourteen 18-in. torpedo tubes.

Photo, Sport & General

Commission of six (three from Newfoundland and three from the United Kingdom) exclusive of the Governor, and under his chairmanship. This situation had arisen owing to her inability to pay her way.

The use of the island by the U.S. as a naval and military base produced unexampled prosperity, and the Newfoundland Board of Trade, meeting at St. John's on March 8, passed two resolutions, one protesting against the new taxation proposals made by the Commission Government, the second demanding a return to some form of representative government. A petition, backed by many sections of the community, was later sent to the King asking for the appointment of a Royal Commission to inquire into the island's constitutional and financial position.

On May 5 Mr. Attlee announced in the British House of Commons that a parliamentary mission was to pay an informal

Goodwill Mission to Newfoundland visit to the island. On December 2 Mr. Emrys Evans, Dominion's Under-Secretary, stated

that though the British Government wanted self-government to be restored to a self-supporting Newfoundland, if the people expressed a wish for it, such expression could not be given in the abnormal conditions of war. As soon as practicable after the end of the European war, machinery must be provided to enable the Newfoundlanders to express their considered views. This statement was debated on December 15, when Mr. C. G. Ammon, leader of the Goodwill Mission, in proposing a motion (which was agreed to) welcoming the acceptance of the principle of Newfoundland's right to self-government, and urging the

adoption of necessary steps to give it effect as soon as possible, said that his mission had found no desire to return to the form of government which had been replaced by the Commission, that a minority favoured union with Canada—a wish opposed by the majority—and that a few wished to join the U.S.

By July 1943, of a total of 40,000 male Newfoundlanders between the ages of 20 and 40, more than 10,000 volunteers were serving overseas on land, in the air, and at sea. The 166th Newfoundland Field Regi-

ment R.A. served throughout the Tunisian campaign, and later in Italy. A Forestry Unit with a strength which at one time reached 2,500 men had been working in the U.K. since November 1939. An interest-free loan of \$2,500,000 sent to Britain brought the total of such loans made by Newfoundland since the outbreak of war to more than \$10,300,000. She also gave \$500,000 for the purchase of aircraft for the Newfoundland R.A.F. Squadron.

There was no political truce in Australia, and at the beginning of 1943 the Labour Government could command a **AUSTRALIA** majority in the House of Representatives only with the support of the two independent members. On the last day of the old year Mr. Fadden,



SOUTH AFRICAN AMBULANCE UNIT IN TRAINING

South African forces served all through the Allied campaigns in North Africa, and after February 1943 were allowed to serve outside the African continent. The Sixth South African Armoured Division, commanded by Major-General W. H. E. Poole, D.S.O., joined the Allied forces in the Middle East during 1943, first undergoing a period of final training. Here, men of an ambulance unit are practising first aid during the training period.

Photo, British Official

opposition leader, attacked the Prime Minister, Mr. Curtin, for continuing to refuse to form a Coalition Government. Criticism of the Government continued, and as the opposition held the balance in the Senate, the Government's position was precarious. When a vote of no-confidence moved by Mr. Fadden in June was defeated by one vote only, Mr. Curtin announced that he would advise a dissolution.

The election campaign that followed was characterized by acrimonious charges and counter-charges, and there

**Overwhelming
Labour
Victory**

was a record nomination of candidates—70 for the 19 vacancies in the Senate, 345 for the 74 seats in the House of Representatives. The election, held on August 21, gave Labour an overwhelming victory: it gained all 19 seats in the Senate (five of the retiring Senators had belonged to the opposition) and 49 seats in the House of Representatives. Women representatives (two) were elected to Canberra for the first time. Nearly 180 candidates forfeited their deposits.

At the triennial conference of the Australian Labour Party, which opened on December 13, a resolution moved by Mr. Curtin that Australia should collaborate with other peace-loving nations in accordance with the provisions of the Atlantic Charter was adopted unanimously: a step significant as marking

an abandonment by Australian Labour of any tendency towards isolationism.

The Defence Act Amendment Act, (see page 2448), passed in February, permitted the use of the Australian militia (previously restricted to service inside Australia) to any territory in the South-west Pacific (defined as lying, west to east, between the 110th and 159th meridians of east longitude, and northward to the Equator) proclaimed by the Governor-General as associated with the defence of Australia. By the middle of November more than 40 per cent of the Australian troops operating in New Guinea (where Australian forces played a decisive part: see Chapters 249 and 276) were members of the militia.

By 1943 considerable American forces were based in Australia (see page 2446). President Roosevelt announced in October that under reverse Lease-Lend enough beef and veal had been supplied by Australia to meet nearly all the needs of these troops. The amount thus received (and consumed in Australia) was the same as the quantity of beef and veal then being sent by the U.S. to the European theatre of war for the use of troops other than Americans, and these two items therefore cancelled each other out and provided a remarkable saving in transport. The presence of Americans in Australia led to a visit by Mrs. Roosevelt, who arrived in Canberra on September 3. She also inspected American Red Cross facilities.



Private A. S. GURNEY
(Australian Military Forces)

At Tel el Eisa, Egypt, on July 22, 1942, Pte. Gurney's company was held up by intense machine-gun fire, all the officers being killed or wounded. He charged the nearest machine-gun post alone, silenced it, knocked out a second and, though wounded, attacked a third. His single-handed gallantry enabled his company to gain its objective. Pte. Gurney was posthumously awarded the V.C.

Photo, Australian Government

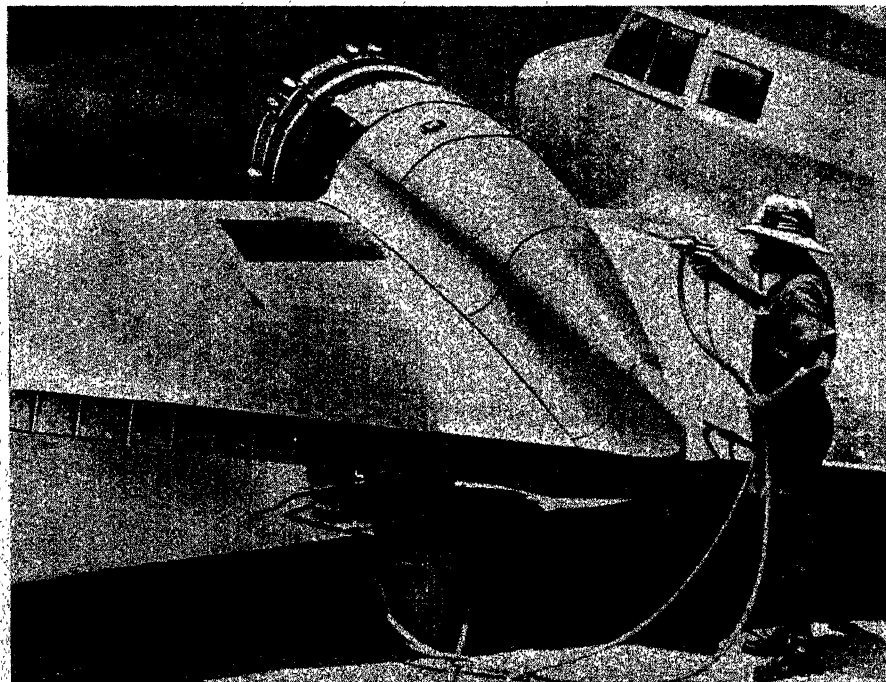
In May and June Dr. Evatt, Minister for External Affairs, paid a second visit to Washington and London, to discuss Pacific problems in relation to world war strategy; and in August an American War Mission headed by the U.S. Under-Secretary for War visited Australia.

Two appointments made during the year were of special interest: that announced in November of H.R.H. the Duke of Gloucester to succeed Lord Gowrie as Governor-General at the end of his extended

**A Royal
Governor-
General**

term; and that announced in December of Mr. R. G. Casey to be Governor of Bengal—the first Dominions statesman to be elevated to such a post by Britain.

By December 1943 1,181,000 men—or practically half the working male population of Australia—were in direct war work, including the armed forces, which numbered 858,860 men. By September 191,000 women were in direct war work. Men of the A.I.F. had fought in Greece, Crete, Syria, Malaya and Libya. They served in the Middle East from February 1940 to early in 1943. Units of the Royal Australian Navy, in which by December 1943 there were 30,000 men, had served in the Mediterranean, the Indian Ocean, the Persian Gulf, the East Indies, the Pacific and Australian waters. The Royal Australian Air Force by 1943 had increased to 105,000 men. In November 1943



SOUTHERN RHODESIA REPAIRS AIRCRAFT

A crashed aircraft, reconditioned at a Repair Depot in Southern Rhodesia by R.A.F. craftsmen, receives its top coat of paint, sprayed on by an air craftsman from England who was a railway coach trimmer in civil life. Shipping difficulties led Southern Rhodesia to develop her iron ore and coal deposits, chromite, tungstic ore and molybdenum resources, and to become a producer instead of an importer of machinery and spares.

Photo, British Official



STRATEGIC ROAD CONSTRUCTION IN AUSTRALIA

An early stage in the construction of a strategic road through Central Australia. The Allied Works Council, established in February 1942 to see that the requirements of the Chiefs of Staff were carried out, had by the end of 1943 built 5,000 miles of such highways. Docks, aerodromes, munition works, oil storage plants, hospitals, and all other kinds of building and installation required to fulfil war needs were also constructed by the Council. (See also illus., page 2445.)

Photo by courtesy of Australian Allied Works Council

apart from the squadrons in the South-West Pacific area, there were more than 18,000 members of the R.A.A.F. in Britain, the Middle East, India and other theatres of war. In the South-West Pacific area the R.A.A.F. fought against the Japanese in the Carolines, Malaya and the Netherlands East Indies, including Timor and New Guinea, in the Solomon Islands and other Pacific areas.

By December 1943, 47,900 women were enrolled in the Nursing Service; 19,688 in the Australian Women's Army Service; 17,015 in the Australian Women's Auxiliary Air Force, many of whom were serving in New Guinea; and 1,715 in the Women's Royal Australian Naval Service.

The last peace-time Budget was for £A98,000,000; the Budget for the year ending September 30, 1944, was for £A570,000,000. Largely from her own resources, Australia had

Australian-Built Ships fully armed and equipped her infantry divisions, which were mostly mechanized, and had built up substantial reserves. Her shipyards were also breaking records. At the end of 1943 more than a score of Australian-built corvettes were serving as R.A.N. ships. Two Australian-built Tribal-class destroyers of 1,970 tons were on active service. Australia was also building sloops, patrol boats, mine-sweepers, freighters, assault and landing craft, and other small craft attached to invasion fleets. From the outbreak of war up to November 30, 1943, Australian shipyards repaired and maintained merchant ships totalling 13,815,000 tons (including 3,109,000 tons of American shipping). An equal tonnage of naval

vessels was also repaired, maintained or docked.

A wide variety of war material was turned out at an amazing rate. A complete range of operational aircraft was produced—trainers, fighters, medium bombers, torpedo-carrying bombers and heavy bombers. They included the Beaufort torpedo-bomber, the Boomerang interceptor (first used in the Allied landings at Lae, New Guinea), and the Beaufighter. Deliveries of the Beaufort torpedo-bomber to the end of November 1943 exceeded 500. This development of aircraft production is all the more remarkable when it is realized that before the war Australia had not built even a motor-car. By March 1943 she was producing cruiser tanks, armoured universal carriers and cars. In October 1943 it was decided to abandon the production of Australian cruiser tanks and other armoured vehicles, as the supplies of tanks available far exceeded the demand. In 1943 the production of artillery and ammunition was also reduced, to give place to the demands for engineering stores, such as bridging equipment and electrical fittings. The sulphanilamide which proved so valuable in the New Guinea campaigns was produced in the Commonwealth; intricate surgical instruments, formerly imported, were manufactured there; ether was sent to Russia, surgical catgut and hypodermic syringes to India and New Zealand, and serums to the whole Pacific area.

The general election due in New Zealand in 1941 had been twice postponed for a year; but in 1943 the Prime Minister, Mr. Peter Fraser, expressed his conviction that the time had come

for the country to give its verdict on the Labour administration, which had been eight years in office. Though there were a record number of candidates (291) for the 80 seats in the House of Representatives, the **NEW ZEALAND** election campaign was the quietest ever held in New Zealand. At the election, held on September 25, Labour was returned again, but with 45 seats instead of 49.

"In the interests of the war effort, and in support of the Mother Country," butter was added in October to the foodstuffs already rationed: the allowance was 8 ozs. a week; cream also was made available only on production of a medical certificate—evidence indeed of the all-out war effort of this land of dairy products. Mrs. Roosevelt, whose visit to Australia has already been mentioned, came to New Zealand also in August, to visit American troops (see page 2450) and Red Cross installations established there.

More than 189,000 men had, by September 1943, been enrolled in the armed forces—one-fourth of New Zealand's male population; 95,340 had gone overseas, including nearly 6,000 Maoris—among whom was Second-Lieut. Ngarimu who won the V.C. in Tunisia (see illus., page 2623). Over 2,000 Maoris had joined the Territorial Force for home service, 10,000 the Home Guard—which attained its maximum strength of 124,000 in mid-1943, and was due to be placed on reserve from January 1,

MRS. ROOSEVELT AT CANBERRA

Australia's Prime Minister, Mr. John Curtin, welcomed Mrs. Roosevelt when she arrived at Canberra on September 3, 1943, during her tour of American troops and Red Cross installations in the Antipodes. She also studied the work being done by the women of Australia and New Zealand.

Photo, "New York Times" Photos



1944. Maoris in essential industries numbered 10,000.

Contingents of New Zealand airmen continued to arrive at British ports. The New Zealand Division under General Sir Bernard Freyberg, V.C., fought right through with the Eighth Army to the end of the Tunisian campaign (see map, page 2773). The first party of officers, men, and nurses of the Division reached New Zealand on furlough on July 12, and were received with considerable pride and excitement. Many of the men had fought from Greece to Tunisia. By the end of the year the New Zealand Division was back with the Eighth Army in Italy, where their share in the crossing of the Sangro River earned General Montgomery's congratulation. In the Pacific, New Zealand troops were stationed in New Caledonia, Fiji and Samoa: at Tonga a U.S. naval establishment was under the command of a New Zealand officer; units of the

Royal New Zealand Navy operated with Allied forces around the Solomons, where New Zealand airmen and troops also fought.

Until 1939 New Zealand had little heavy industry. Yet in 1943 construction of war vessels reached the rank of a substantial industry. Shipyards at Auckland, and other ports, constructed ships for coastal trade and minesweepers. Merchant vessels were converted and equipped for defence. Universal and Bren-gun carriers and certain types of tractors were assembled. Factories produced 2-in. and 3-in. mortars, shells, grenades, and aircraft and tank parts. By June 1943 151,613,000 rounds of small-arms ammunition, 1,850,000 hand grenades, 70,000 mortars and mortar bombs, 19,000 anti-tank mines, and thousands of parts of weapons of war had been turned out. From 1939 to May 1943 New Zealand delivered to the services

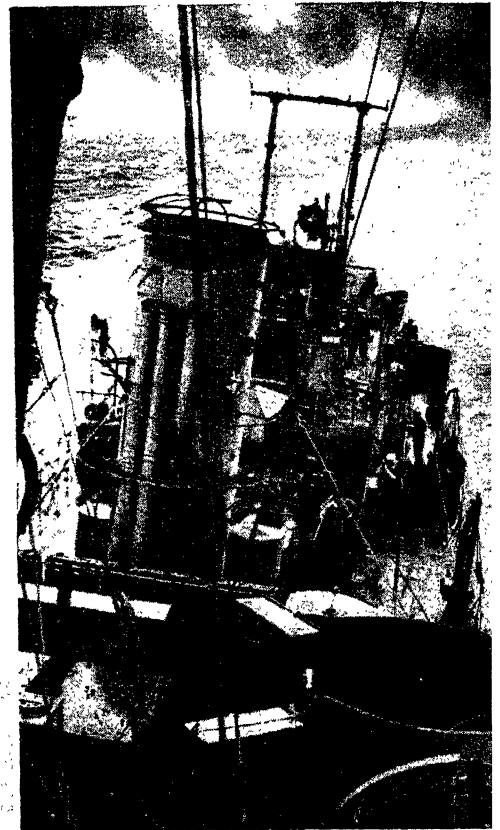
over one million blouses, over one million pairs of trousers, 400,000 great-coats, 2,300,000 pairs of boots, and over 500,000 pairs of blankets.

An Act to assist in the settlement of returned soldiers on the land—one of

WITH THE ROYAL AUSTRALIAN NAVY

To meet the needs of Empire shipping, Australia produced under the guidance of men from Clyde- and Tyneside merchant ships, cargo vessels, and naval minesweepers and escort vessels. Right, 'Warramunga,' Australian built Tribal-class destroyer of 1,870 tons, on her trials. Below, Dr. Evatt, Australian Minister of External Affairs, visits 'Shropshire,' 9,830-ton cruiser handed over by Britain to replace 'Canberra,' lost in the Solomons in August 1942.

Photos, Australian Official; Central Press



Two events during 1943 were pointers to the part South Africa intended to play in world anti-imperialism. The first was the decision taken in February when the House of Assembly (by 75 to 49) and the Senate (by 21 to 6) approved the Prime Minister's motion to permit Union troops (who are all voluntary recruits) to serve outside the African continent. The second was the general election held in July. The campaign had been fought on a single issue—whether the Union should continue or cease active participation in the war—and the result which gave Field Marshal Smuts's Government a strength of 107 to 43 (compared with 84 to 60 in the old House) was an outstanding triumph for his policy. The widespread and general support of the Prime Minister was confirmed at the Provincial Council elections held in November: out of a total of 170 seats in the four provinces the Government won 118.

The trial and condemnation of Robey Liebrandt, former South African heavy-weight boxing champion, for high treason marked the end of the attempts by the noisy and truculent elements among the pro Nazis in South Africa to overthrow the Government by violent means. Condemned to death (a sentence



MEN OF THE TIMOR 'SPARROW' FORCE

Timor Island part Dutch part Portuguese was occupied by the Japanese in February 1942 but a force of Australian and native guerillas led by Capt. Jeff Laidlaw and known as the Sparrow Force continued to harass the enemy. They succeeded early in 1943 in establishing contact by radio with Darwin Australia and thereafter were kept supplied. Here Capt Laidlaw (left) shakes hands with two of his NCOs. Photo British Newsreel Association

confirmed on appeal), Liebrandt was reprieved and the sentence commuted to imprisonment for life: he had not been guilty of sabotage or responsible for the death of any person.

The first conference representing the Labour movement in all Southern Africa and including representatives of the Union, Southern and Northern Rhodesia, and the Belgian Congo was held in Johannesburg on July 17-18 under the presidency of Mr. Walter Madeley, Union Minister of Labour and Social Welfare. Problems affecting all the South African states were discussed, and motions adopted on questions of

economic and social security. A flow of selected immigrants after the war was approved, and it was decided to hold similar conferences annually.

Smuts described the death of the Governor General, the Rt. Hon. Sir Patrick Duncan, on July 17 as the "grievous loss of a great man." On the recommendation of the Union Government, King George approved the continuance in office as Officer Administering the Union (the official title of the acting governor general) of Chief Justice N. J. de Wet, on his relinquishing his Chief Justiceship.

In October Field-Marshal Smuts paid a second wartime visit to Britain, breaking his journey at Cairo to address South African and Rhodesian troops there. He warned them against hoping that the war was nearing its end. In London he was warmly received by the people, took part in the deliberations of the War Cabinet (of which he was a member), and made two notable speeches, one a war commentary at the Guildhall, the other an address to the Empire Parliamentary Association, called "Thoughts on the New World," which caused considerable international controversy, particularly by its references to France (see *Hist. Docts.*, p. 2819).

Of the 570,000 white males in South Africa between the ages of 20 and 60, one in three had volunteered for service by June 1943, when the Union Defence Force had a total strength of 169,000 trained white men and women.

NEW ZEALAND LAND GIRLS

Girls in New Zealand left town jobs to train for farm work, which there often included spending hours in the saddle looking after sheep: this photograph was taken on a farm of 6,000 acres carrying 5,000 sheep. New Zealand land girls learned also tractor driving, milking, butter-making, and all the other skilled jobs needed on a farm, just as their counterparts in England did.

Photo, New Zealand Official



volunteers. Since the war began 86,000 white South Africans had served in East Africa, the Middle East and Madagascar, some of them however being counted more than once because they served in more than one campaign. Cape Coloured Indians, Malays and Natives had been enrolled to a total of 117,000 (of whom 15,000 had been discharged by 1943), 39,000 served outside the Union. At the end of 1943 the South African Army (including the Air Force) numbered over 200,000 trained men, the Air Force itself in June numbered 37,500, while in April 1943 there were 2,400 men serving with the Royal Navy. Volunteers in the women's army and air force services, enrolled to serve anywhere in Africa, were about 20,000. A Women's Auxiliary Naval Service was formed at the end of 1943.

The cost of the war continued to mount, and was to a considerable extent met by heavily increased taxes. For the year 1943-44, defence cost £105,000,000. Mostly from her own factories, South Africa clothed, fed and equipped her own armies. Supplies were also going to others of the United Nations. It was stated at the end of 1943 that war industries, under a revised programme, would concentrate largely on the production of engineering combat equipment, such as pontoon bridges, barges, etc., for certain items of which South Africa would be the only source of supply. Small minesweeping vessels and anti submarine craft, including fast motor patrol boats, were produced.

From March 1941 to March 1943 6,400 Allied ships were repaired in South African ports. Spare parts for aircraft, tanks, armoured vehicles, and guns had been made and flown north. 2,107,000 spare parts for aircraft and 1,250,000 spare parts for tanks and motor vehicles had been made by Nov 1943. Approximately 90 types of army motor vehicles were being assembled. To the end of 1943, 5,000 armoured and 32,000 transport vehicles had been produced.

The exigencies of war had tended to foster a spirit of cordiality between the Union and Southern Rhodesia—to such an extent that the SOUTHERN RHODESIA latter placed her armed forces under the command of Field-Marshal Smuts, whose efforts were all towards closer co-operation between the Union and the territories adjacent to it. The Southern African Labour conference already referred to was another instance of this trend. Towards the end of July, Smuts, accompanied by Lt-Gen. Sir Pierre van Ryneveld,

Chief of the Defence Force, visited Southern Rhodesia. He was accompanied by H. J. van der Merwe, Minister of Education and Information, and by J. H. van der Merwe, Minister of Agriculture. In August the Union Ministers of Railways and Harbours met General Smuts to discuss questions relating to transport and post war industry in Southern Rhodesia. In October the Prime Minister fore-shadowed the formation of a Pan African Council (such as had been advocated in a motion passed by the Southern Rhodesian Parliament in May) to co-ordinate problems of communications, trade, defence, native policy, health and veterinary research common to African countries.

Rigid control of land speculation was introduced in March, in which month also about 1,000 Polish women and

children found refuge in a war training camp in Rhodesia and the Middle East were settled in two camps in Southern Rhodesia. Bulawayo and Harare (formerly Salisbury) were declared open cities in November 1944, the 50th anniversary of its occupation by white men.

Southern Rhodesia's population 70,000 are white and 1,383,000 Africans. In 1943 over 8,000 white Southern Rhodesians and nearly 12,000 Africans were serving with the forces. Rhodesian troops, scattered throughout the British Army, served with distinction in the East African and Middle East campaigns, in Italy and in S.E. Asia.

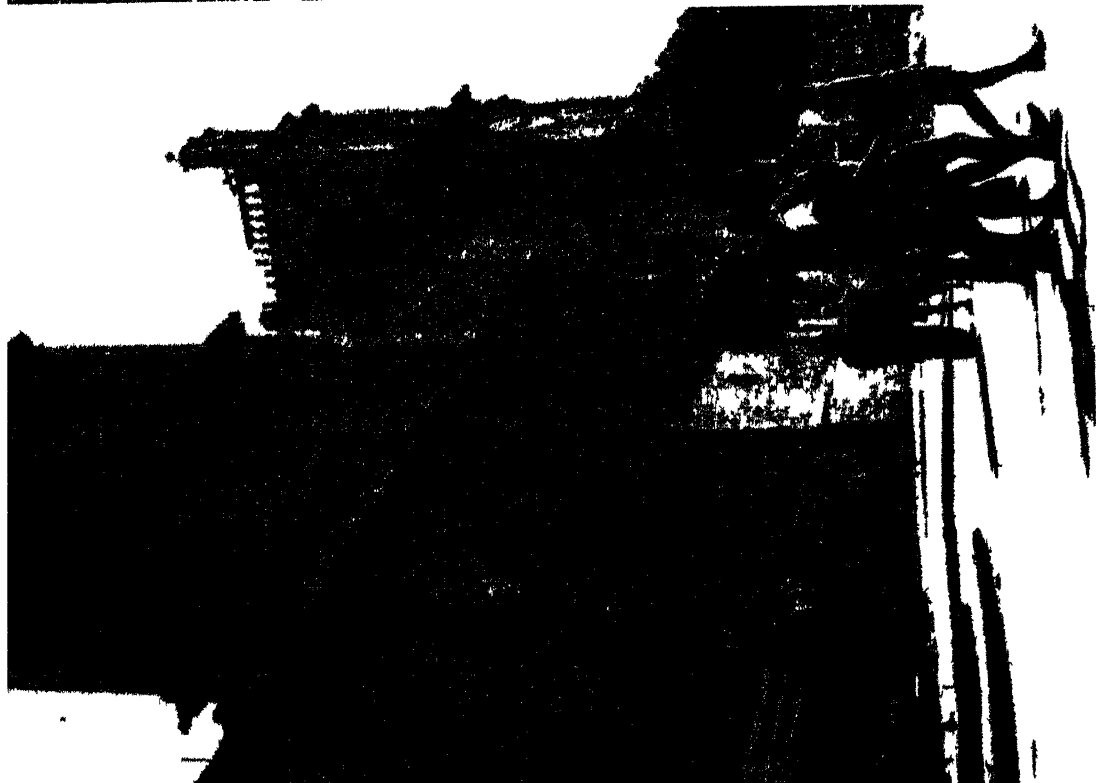
For the year ending March 31, 1944, Southern Rhodesia budgeted for a war expenditure of £5,640,000 out of a total budget of £10,020,000. She also contributed £800,000 a year to the general cost of her Air Training Group.

NEW ZEALANDERS AT WADI MATRATIN, TRIPOLITANIA

In December 1942 New Zealanders fighting under General Sir Bernard Freyberg, V.C. succeeded in cutting the retreating Afrika Korps in two at Wadi Matratin, some 60 miles west of El Agheila, by advancing 100 miles in three days along a disused track to the south of El Agheila which led through desolate sand dunes and rocky wadis. They struck north again to the coast road along the Wadi Matratin. Enemy troops coming from the east suffered heavy casualties in desperate efforts to break through.

Photo British Official





IN MALTA AFTER THE SIEGE WAS RAISED

1 The cathedral of St John, built in 1573 for the Knights of the Order of St John of Jerusalem, suffered badly during the siege of Malta, which lasted from June 1940 until May 1943

2 Valetta celebrates the fall of Tunis 3 All that remained of 'Faith'—sole survivor of the three Gladiator fighters christened Faith, Hope, and Charity which constituted Malta's entire defence against the Regia Aeronautica in the initial period of Axis bombing (see Chapter 229)—was placed with due ceremony in the armoury of the Palace of the Knights of St John of Jerusalem at Valetta

Photos, Wm Jones, Malta

FINE RECORD OF OUR COLONIES IN 1943

The widespread units of the British Colonial Forces continued during 1943 to support the Mother Country with men, raw materials and money. Some account of the significance of their contributions to Great Britain and the other Allies is given here by Sir John Stuchbury, K.C., M.G., C.B., formerly Deputy Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies. The part played by the Colonies in earlier phases of the war is recorded in Chapters 225, 229 and 248.

THE year 1943 witnessed a marked change in the general war situation as affecting a large portion of the Colonial Empire. The final expulsion of the Axis from Northern Africa in May 1943, following upon earlier Allied successes in Abyssinia, the reconquest of British Somaliland and the occupation of the Italian Red Sea Colonies meant not only that British East Africa was removed from the immediate sphere of hostilities, but also that the potential threat to British territory on both the East and West African coasts, had virtually disappeared. The magnificent part played by African troops in the campaigns of 1941 and 1942 has been described in Chapter 248. The year 1943 saw the end of their activities so far as fighting in Africa was concerned. It is true that West Africa, though its troops were no longer engaged on African battlefields and though its own borders were no longer exposed to the risk of direct attack, continued for some time to come to play a vital part in the general war strategy of the Allies.

After the defeat of France the region had been gradually transformed into a great strategical highway for air communications and a naval base for the conveying of shipping bound to and from the Cape. To quote the words of Lord Swinton, Minister Resident in West Africa: 'the only way to get aircraft quickly to the danger spots in the Middle East was to fly them over land from West Africa to Egypt. During the earlier months of the campaign in North West Africa practically every aircraft which flew from America to that battlefield came via airfield in the Gambia.' Again, the closing of the Mediterranean meant that ships for the Middle East had to make the long voyage round the Cape. The West African ports lay on their direct route and it fell to West Africa to arrange for their supply, fuelling and protection on the outward journey. Naturally these requirements led to immense activity in all the British West African territories. A great chain of airfields had to be constructed. Public works,

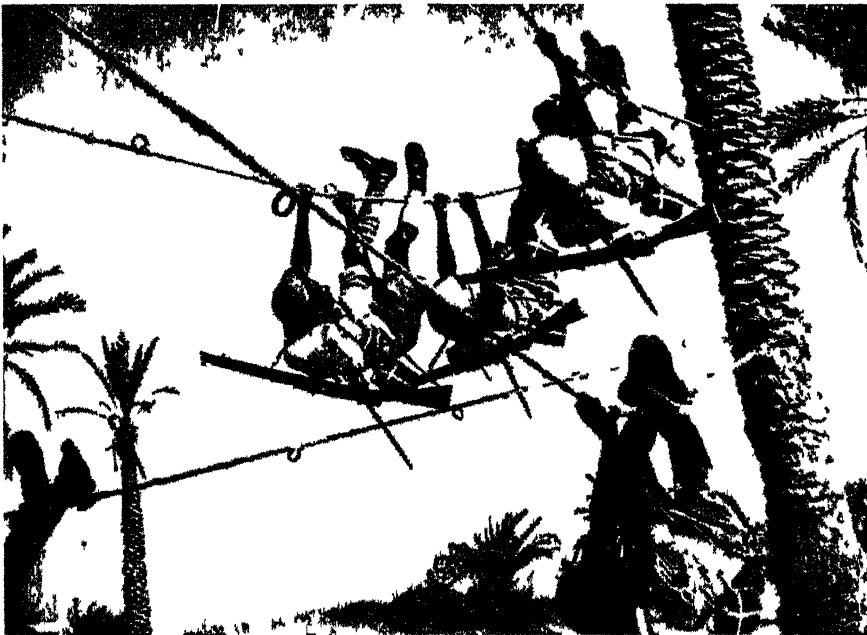
harbours, roads, railways, camps, water supplies and oil installations had to be organized and maintained on a wholly unprecedented scale.

The tension was not immediately relaxed even when the last German



SWAZI WARRIORS BOTH

A Swazi in native warrior dress observes a fellow-countryman in British uniform on sentry duty in North Africa. Some 3,500 men of the British Protectorate of Swaziland joined the Pioneer Corps. First recruited in 1941, they served in North Africa, and many went on to Sicily and Italy with the Allied armies. *Photo, British Official*



'TOUGH TACTICS' FOR MEN OF THE SUDAN

Men of the Sudanese Defence Force in training in North Africa, where they learned to handle all the weapons used in present-day war, went through a 'tough tactics' battle course, and trained as signalmen, wireless operators and gunners. Legislation enacted in the Sudan in October 1943 establishing Province Councils and Advisory Councils in the six northern provinces was an important step in the association of the Sudanese with the machinery of government.

Photo, British Official

soldier had surrendered in Cape Bon peninsula (see Chapter 277). Some months had still to elapse before the effective reopening of the Mediterranean Sea route, but once that was accomplished and once the Mediterranean had reverted to something like its normal status as the maritime highway to the East, the situation, so far as West Africa was concerned, underwent a modification. The area lost some of its character as a key-point in strategic communications. This change was a vital one but, as affecting the local war effort, it was a change of direction rather than a relaxation. The utility of West Africa to the Allied cause remained unaffected. Relieved of its more pressing responsibilities in one sphere, it was able to concentrate its utmost efforts in another.



NIGERIA'S CHIEFS CONFER

The Chiefs of Oyo, Benin, Abeokuta, Iuebu, Ondo, and Warri provinces of Nigeria, with their counsellors and interpreters, at a conference summoned by the Nigerian Government in 1943 at Ibadan. Mr. A. G. Grantham, Officer administering the Government, thanked them for what they had done already, and appealed for even better results. (Below) Nigerian labourers at the Pengal Camp Mine, Bauchi Province, Northern Nigeria, removing the overburden concealing the wash containing tin concentrate which lies 15 feet below the ground. *Photos, British Official*



Emphasis has been laid on the case of West Africa because it was there, more than in any other part of the Colonial Empire (except Malta), that the events of 1943 created a wholly new situation. To put it quite briefly, the West African territories found themselves diverted from the more directly

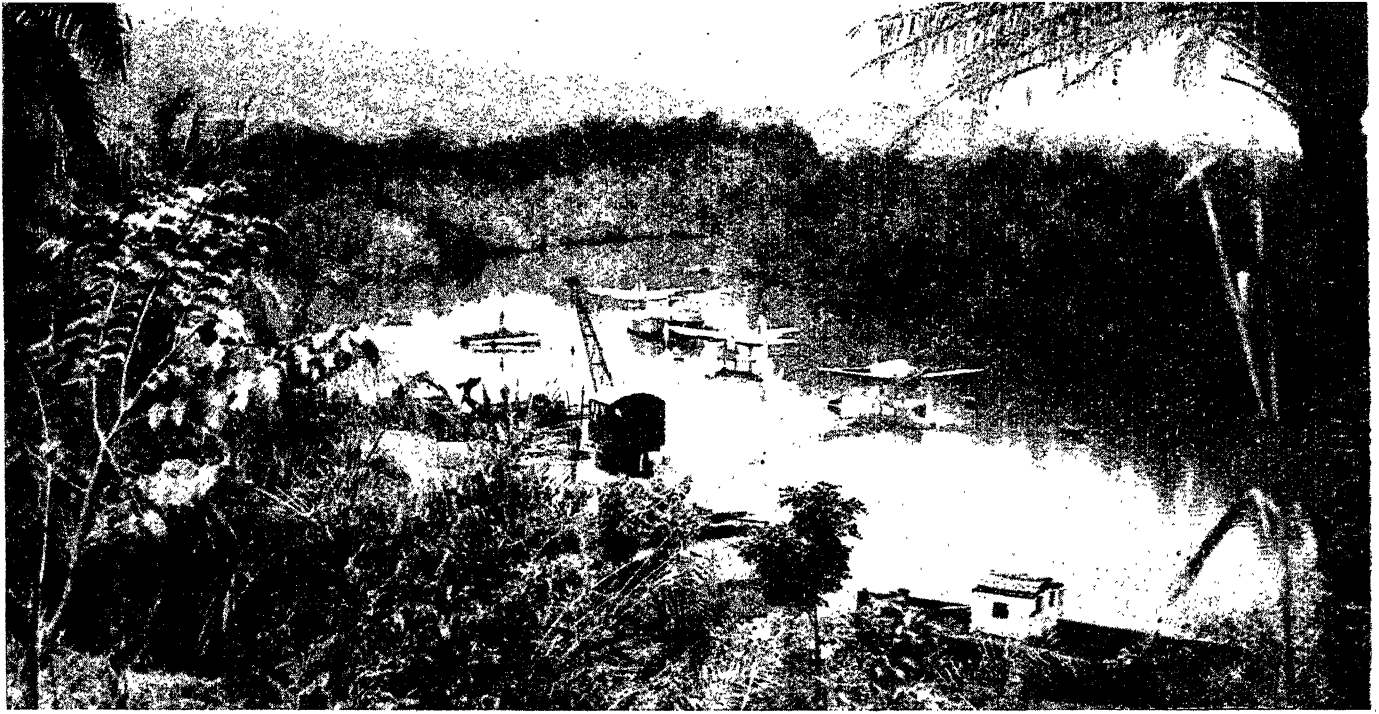
military problems of transport and communications to the less directly military (though almost equally important) problems of the production of raw materials. It was by no means a new role, but it was one that the turn of events greatly accentuated. It was also a role shared by West Africa with

nearly every other territory throughout the Colonial Empire. The needs of the Allied Nations for vital raw materials grew more urgent every month.

Perhaps the most important product of all was rubber. One effect of the Japanese conquest of Malaya and the East Indies was to exclude the Allies from their principal field of pre-war rubber supply. By one means or another, the loss had to be made good; and it was in the first instance to the British Colonies that an appeal for increased production had to be made. The largest remaining source of natural rubber was Ceylon, and immense efforts were made in that Colony to expand local production to the highest possible point. Another potential source of supply was Nigeria, where a great drive for extended production was carried out during the year. It was no easy matter. The rubber had to be collected, not from self-contained and well-organized plantations, but for the most part from trees and plants scattered over thousands of miles of forest. Everywhere, Lord Swinton said, "people are hunting for wild rubber; it is a sort of family treasure hunt."

Rubber was one of the most urgent needs; but it was far from standing alone. There were many other commodities for which the demand had been enormously enhanced, sometimes as a result of enemy action (as in the case of Malayan tin and rubber), sometimes by the mere force of circumstances inseparable from a world-wide war. Nearly every Colony played its part in developing its resources to meet the constantly increasing demand. Among the Eastern Colonies, Ceylon provided not only rubber, but tea, graphite and copra. Sugar came from Mauritius and the Western Pacific; copra from the Western Pacific and the Seychelles. The British West Indies supplied sugar in large quantities; bauxite (the raw material of aluminium, essential in aircraft manufacture) came from British Guiana; mahogany from British Honduras; and oil from Trinidad.

With Malaya out of action, the Nigerian tin mines were called upon for redoubled efforts. This colony, also, supplied the mineral columbite (containing tantalum and niobium, found in association with tin ores) which was extensively employed by American plants in the making of special steels for aircraft construction. Formerly regarded as of slight commercial value, its rise to importance for alloying steel led to the opening of many mines in



H.M.S. 'SPURWING': NAVAL AIR STATION, SIERRA LEONE

This naval air station on a river of Sierra Leone, West Africa, was cut by the Fleet Air Arm out of the untouched bush. It included a first-class airfield, barracks and all the installations of a large naval establishment, as well as this arm of the river whence the station's amphibious aircraft could take off. Properly equipped shops looked after maintenance and repairs. Aircraft of the station carried out convoy duties, anti-submarine patrols, coastal reconnaissance, and ambulance duties from up-country spots.

Photo, British Official

Northern Nigeria. Among other products from West Africa were cocoa, manganese and bauxite from the Gold Coast; groundnuts and palm kernels from Nigeria; iron ore from the Marampa mines in Sierra Leone; and industrial diamonds from Sierra Leone and the Gold Coast. East Africa furnished sisal (for which the loss of Java and the Philippines had created an immensely increased demand), pyrethrum (a valuable insecticide), hides, copra and coconut oil, tea and coffee.

Such a bare list of commodities, with unfamiliar names, does not make inspiring reading. Words like copra, palm kernels and groundnuts may mean

RHODESIANS IN MADAGASCAR

The Northern Rhodesian Regiment, which fought with distinction in British Somaliland and in Abyssinia, then went on guard duty in Ceylon, where their arrival was announced on May 8, 1942, and in Madagascar. Here, members are preparing new defences on Madagascar after its occupation by British and Fighting French troops in Nov. 1942.

Photo, Pictorial Press



little or nothing to the average reader. But everybody is aware that war conditions bring about a serious shortage of oils and fats. Soap and margarine, for example, have to be strictly rationed. What are the raw materials that supply these everyday requirements, and from what part of the world are they obtained? They are, in fact, some of the very commodities that have just been mentioned, and it is on the Colonies in the main that we depend for the maintenance of an adequate supply.

It was to meet this deficiency of oils and fats that special measures were organized by the Resident Minister in West Africa in May 1943 to stimulate oilseed production within the four territories under his control. Of the four, Nigeria offered the most promising field, and it was there that Lord Swinton set on foot his main campaign. He sought and secured the willing co-operation of the Mahomedan Sultans of the Northern Provinces. He was able to report a month later that his action was already producing favourable results, not in Nigeria alone, but also in Sierra Leone and the Gold Coast. Later a scheme was inaugurated for substantial purchases by the West African Produce Control Board which controls, on behalf of the British Government, the purchase of all oil seeds and vegetable oils in West Africa. So it was that the maintenance of Britons' home-front rations owed not a little to their African fellow-subjects.

An interesting statement made by the Prime Minister in the House of Commons on May 10, 1944, dealt with the supplies sent to Soviet Russia from the British Empire. Among other items, he mentioned £1,168,000 worth of industrial diamonds, mainly of African production; 81,423 tons of rubber from the Far East and Ceylon (£9,911,000); 8,550 tons of sisal from British East Africa (£194,000); 3,300 tons of graphite from Ceylon (£160,000); 28,050 tons of tin from Malaya and the United Kingdom (£7,774,000). Turning to foodstuffs (the total value of which amounted to over £7,000,000) he included tea from Ceylon; cocoa beans, palm oil and palm kernels from West Africa; coconut oil from Ceylon; pepper and spices from Ceylon and the British West Indies. These figures show that towards the aggregate amount of all the materials supplied to our Ally (valued at over £80,000,000) the Colonial Empire made a substantial contribution. It may fairly claim to have played a part, small no doubt but not wholly negligible, in the brilliant achievements of the Russian Armies throughout the year.

Apart from the drive for increased production of essential materials, immense efforts were made through the Colonial Empire to expand the local cultivation of food crops, with a view to making each country as far

as possible self-sufficient in food. This was a view to making each country as far

as possible self-supporting and so relieving the pressure upon the shipping space required to bring imports from overseas. Even in such an arid region as Aden, the recently established agricultural services succeeded, under conditions of extreme difficulty, in increasing the production of food.

Mauritius had an unfortunate experience: she valiantly planted maize in large tracts of land hitherto under sugar, but a hurricane intervened and the maize crops were almost entirely

Food Problems of the Colonies

destroyed. Jamaica took to eating, instead of exporting, her home-grown bananas. Rice presented a problem of special urgency. It was the staple food of many parts of the Empire; but the Japanese conquests in the Far East, and particularly the loss of Burma, brought the available supply to a dangerously low level. To meet the situation and to reduce imports to a minimum, rice cultivation on a largely increased scale was undertaken in East and West Africa, British Guiana and Ceylon. Steps were taken in the West Indies to increase the home-grown supply of corn and tapioca.

The process was assisted by grants from the British Treasury under the Colonial Development and Welfare Act, 1940. For example, a loan of £150,000, free of interest, was made to Jamaica to stimulate the production of food yeast in the colony. A similarly interest-free loan of £10,000 was made to Mauritius for the same purpose. Among other grants sanctioned during the year was one of £15,250 to enable the Gambia Government to intensify its rice production.

These operations had little that was spectacular in their character, and were probably known to a mere handful of people outside those directly concerned. The general public, absorbed in the turmoil and shifting fortunes of a great war, had little time or

SUGAR FROM MAURITIUS

Sugar cane arriving at an extraction factory in the island of Mauritius, one of Britain's smallest colonies, which lies in the Indian Ocean, and at one time seemed in imminent danger from the Japanese.



ASCENSION AIR-BASE

Before the war, Ascension Island, in mid-Atlantic between Brazil and Africa, was important as a wireless station relaying messages from all parts of the world. From July 1942 it became a vital base and ferry point for Allied transatlantic aircraft. Left, a U.S. army plane comes in to land through flocks of sooty terns, otherwise wideawake birds.

Photo, Keystone

British Empire. But the Colonial effort was nonetheless a great and important one—a real and solid contribution towards the achievement of final victory.

The cessation of hostilities in Africa by no means implied that the African forces of the Crown were no longer needed for defence purposes or employed on active military duties. The East African Forces of the Crown

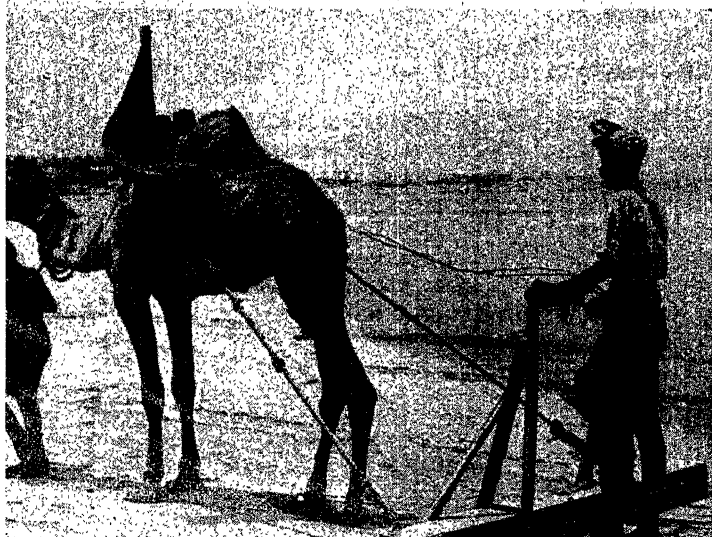
remained in being and still had many important military tasks to discharge. East African troops were sent to garrison both Ceylon and Madagascar, the former still in the war zone, and the latter an important outpost in the defence of Africa against possible aggression from the Far East. East and West African contingents were sent to India to reinforce the armies assembling for the onslaught against the Japanese on the Burma frontier. The West Africans soon demonstrated in the Burma theatre that they could fight Japanese as successfully as they fought Italians in Africa. They enhanced their already high reputation in a new sphere of action. The East Africans could be trusted not to fall behind the standard set by their West African comrades.

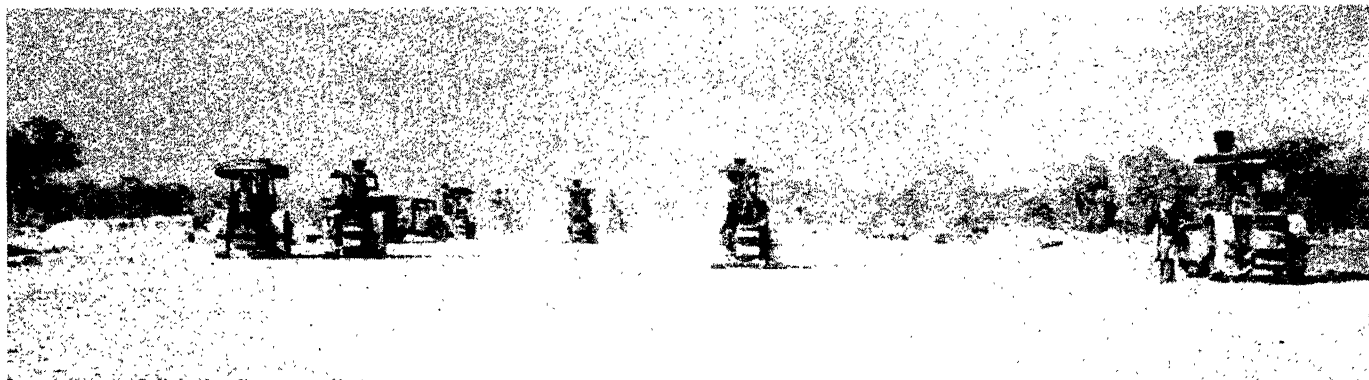
A communiqué published on September 8, 1943, recorded that "the largest and best equipped fighting force ever to leave the shores of East Africa has recently arrived in Ceylon and India." Behind that brief notification lay a long story: a story of months of intense training, intricate and efficient planning, collection of immense quantities of stores, and effective co-operation between Europeans, Asiatics and Africans, all of whom had their

AIRFIELD AT ADEN

Aden, British outpost in Southern Arabia, fuelling station and port of call for shipping bound east or west through the Suez Canal, and commanding the entrance to the Red Sea and so to the Canal itself from the east, increased its value in wartime by constructing a new airfield. Camels were used to help in leveling the ground.

Photo, British Official





CEYLON JUNGLE INTO AIRFIELD

The outbreak of war between Japan and the Allies in December 1941 brought Ceylon into the front line, and it became necessary to create airfields in her jungles. Machinery destroyed the vegetation, armies of labourers burned, cleared and levelled the ground, and steam-rollers came to compress the runways. One such airfield was completed and in use in two weeks, in spite of all the difficulties of work in jungle conditions. Life in these jungle airfields was tough and monotonous, with little activity, but under a constant threat.

Photo, Canadian Official

share in the constitution of the greatest East African force that had ever been assembled. African troops formed by far the greater part of this vast fighting machine. They came from every territory in British East and Central Africa and represented nearly every tribe throughout the region. Many of the men saw the sea for the first time in their lives. They were quick to settle down in their novel environment. One report from Ceylon recorded that the sight of a tame elephant had interested the newly arrived African soldiers beyond anything else in their new experiences. Their one desire was to be photographed, for the edification of their relatives in Africa, riding one of these unaccustomed mounts.

Outside Africa there was much sustained military effort in a variety of directions. In the West Indies a new regular unit known as the South

Local Defence Forces

Caribbean Force was formed in April 1943.

Its personnel was recruited from, and stationed in, Barbados, Trinidad, the Windward Islands and British Guiana. A North Caribbean Force was also formed for Jamaica, British Honduras, the Bahamas and the Leeward Islands. Later in the year a scheme for the recruitment of tradesmen and technicians for the ground staff of the R.A.F. was started in the West Indies. It met with a most favourable response. After the close of the year it was decided to employ West Indian and Bermudian troops on service overseas. In Ceylon the local Defence Force continued to grow in numbers and efficiency. The local Naval Volunteer Force was taken over by the Admiralty during the year, and its title changed to the Ceylon R.N.V.R.; its strength was approximately 1,000 of all ranks.

In Mauritius the Territorial Force was reorganized under the name of the

Mauritius Regiment and placed under the direct control of the War Office. An Ordinance was enacted enabling the Force, if required, to operate under local law outside the Colony. Recruitment, both for Arabs and Jews, proceeded in Palestine. In Fiji steps were taken to place the personnel and vessels of the Fiji Naval Volunteer Force at the disposal of the Crown for general service with the Royal Navy. The Force, which was renamed the Fiji R.N.V.R., had a strength of about 350 in April 1943. It was mainly engaged in manning local patrol launches and was responsible for the security of ships in the Suva harbour.

In the Pacific region the activities of the Fijian troops (including their

Commando units) and of the British Solomon Islands Defence Force demand record. "Scarcely an American has come back from Guadalcanal in the past few months," the Governor of Fiji reported on May 8, 1943, "without bringing fresh stories of the daring and resourcefulness

Native Units in the Pacific

of the Fijians there, who have shown themselves to be more than a match for the Japanese as jungle fighters." They were described by American correspondents as probably the finest jungle fighters in the world. The British Solomon Islands Defence Force, under the inspiring leadership of Lieutenant-Colonel Marchant, British Resident Commissioner in the islands, rendered services just as remarkable within their own particular sphere. This force could claim to be the youngest combatant unit in the British Empire. Its maximum strength never exceeded 400, and it was at no time sufficiently



OFFICERS FOR THE SOUTH CARIBBEAN FORCE

N.C.O.s of the Third Trinidad Battalion who were candidates for commissions being interviewed by the Garrison Commander, Trinidad Battalion, South Caribbean Forces, at army headquarters, Piasco. Units of the South Caribbean Forces saw service overseas after undergoing training in jungle warfare, commando, infantry, and artillery work.

Photo, British Official



FIJI COMMANDOS ON BOUGAINVILLE

Plasma transfusion for a Fijian casualty during the bitter fighting on Bougainville, most northerly of the Solomons. The Japanese captured the island in April 1942. Not until November 1, 1943, did the Allies return, when U.S. Marines made successful landings at Empress Augusta Bay. Fierce fighting for possession of the island was continuing at the turn of the year. It was announced on September 16 that Fiji Commandos were fighting in the Solomons and had also fought on Guadalcanal; they were more than a match for the Japanese as jungle-fighters, being more intelligent and resourceful and having greater powers of endurance.

Photo, New Zealand Official

disengaged from active operations as to admit of the regular training of new recruits. Nevertheless, the force accounted in all for 350 Japanese killed and 34 taken prisoner. This was accomplished for the loss of seven men killed in action and two taken prisoner.

The newly formed Solomon Islands Labour Corps did good work during the final stages of the Battle of Guadalcanal. While the Americans were driving the Japanese into the sea, units of the Corps carried munition supplies right up to the front line, along tracks exposed to continual shell-fire. Their courage under novel and terrifying conditions earned them the warmest commendation. One particular act of heroism by a Solomon Islander, though it actually took place before the end of 1942, may fitly be recorded here. The hero was Sergeant-Major Vouza, of the British Constabulary in the Solomons. While carrying out a mission on behalf of the American Command, he fell into enemy hands. He was lashed to a tree and subjected to the most savage brutality. In spite of everything he refused to betray his trust or to give the enemy any information. Severely bayoneted about the chest and throat, and left for dead by his tormentors, he nevertheless managed to free himself from his bonds and to make his way back to the American lines with valuable intelligence about enemy dispositions. The American army doctor, who treated him on his return, expressed

Heroic Solomon Islander

little publicity; but it earned the highest of all compliments—the warm gratitude of the troops whom they served.

To Malta the year brought a dramatic change of fortune. September 10, 1943, was a red letter day in the history of the island. It was on that day that the Italian Fleet, or what remained of it, steamed into Maltese waters to place itself at the disposal of the British Naval Command. "It was something," wrote The Times correspondent, "seen but once in a generation. Not since the German Fleet steamed into Scapa Flow at the end of the last war has the world seen the like of this event. The line of ships stretched along the Mediterranean's dark blue surface for a distance of five miles." There were scenes of wild rejoicing in Malta. Few parts of the Empire suffered more savagely than Malta during the second and third years of the war. The stubborn heroism of the Maltese people during the prolonged agony of intensive bombardment from the air had excited the admiration of all free peoples in every part of the world. Now at last the grim ordeal was over. No longer a beleaguered fortress, Malta could take her place as a jumping-off ground for Allied attacks upon the Hitlerite forces in Europe.

The direct financial assistance rendered by the Colonial Empire in meeting the expenses of the war was substantial. Apart from contributions to the cost of local defence services, its peoples had, by April 1943, contributed over

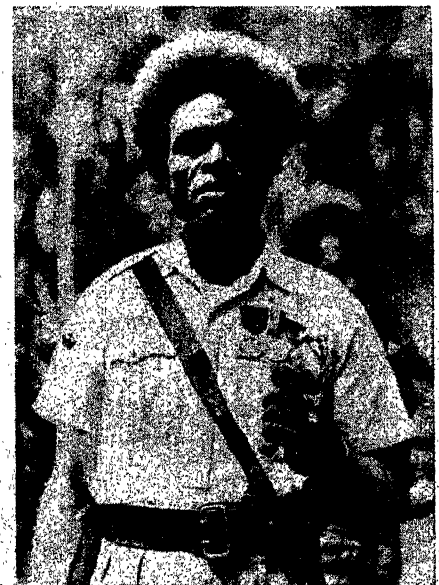
amazement that a man could survive such injuries.

In the North African and Sicilian campaigns Colonial Pioneer units from East and West Africa, Mauritius and the Seychelles, as well as transport units from Cyprus and Palestine, played an important part. They brought forward supplies, constructed roads, cleared and reconditioned occupied ports. Their work, often carried out under enemy fire and usually in circumstances of great difficulty, gained

£23,000,000 in gifts and nearly £7,000,000 in loans to the Government of the United Kingdom. There were, in addition, a number of local loans raised by Colonial Governments, the proceeds of which were spent on local defence or loaned free of interest to the United Kingdom. In some cases gifts were made in kind. The small South Atlantic island of Tristan da Cunha contributed a whole year's wool clip. The sale of War Savings Certificates in Trinidad reached a new weekly record early in 1943 with purchases of over £8,400 worth of Certificates.

The position was aptly summarized by the Prime Minister in a speech delivered on June 30, 1943. "Three years ago," he said, "... against the triumphant might of Hitler ... we stood alone. Then, surely, was the moment for the Empire to break up, for each of its widely dispersed communities to seek safety on the winning side. ... But what happened? ... In that dark, terrific and also glorious hour, we received from all parts of His Majesty's Dominions, from the greatest to the smallest, from the strongest to the weakest, and from the most modern to the most simple, the assurance that we would all go down or come through together." The British Colonial Empire, whatever the future may have in store for it, could ask for no nobler tribute to its war-time record.

Mr. Churchill's Tribute



SOLOMON ISLAND VOLUNTEER

Sgt. Maj. Vouza, of the British Constabulary in the Solomons, who gained the George Medal for remarkable courage when captured by the Japanese (see this page). His other medals are Colonial Police Medal, Coronation Medal, and American Silver Star for Valor.

Photo, British Official



REFUGEES FROM BOMBED BERLIN IN EAST PRUSSIA

Women and children evacuated from heavily bombed Berlin being sorted out for the final stage of their journey to "safe" areas in East Prussia. By the end of 1943 several square miles of the city had been "erased." Berlin was estimated at twenty to thirty thousand. The bombed-out were put to work clearing debris because, it was estimated officially, idleness represented a great danger to their sanity. Food had to be brought in by lorry, owing to the break-down of the railways; and queues running into tens of thousands waited for soup to be ladled out from receptacles—often old tins or cracked jugs.

Photo: K. M. ...



NEW ZEALANDERS IN THE SOLOMON ISLANDS

The fighter revetment at Ondonga, in New Georgia, where New Zealand Warhawks are being serviced. Below, New Zealanders land at Baka Baka on Vella Lavella, also in the New Georgia group of the Solomons, on September 17, 1943. American troops landed on Vella Lavella on August 15 (see illus., page 2606), and gained control of most of it; but only on October 13 did General MacArthur's G.H.Q. announce that enemy resistance had ceased when this New Zealand landing wiped out the last Japanese garrison.

Photos, Royal New Zealand Air Force; Central Press



